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A transient role of the ciliary gene *Inpp5e* in controlling direct versus indirect neurogenesis in cortical development

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ABSTRACT

During the development of the cerebral cortex, neurons are generated directly from radial glial cells or indirectly via basal progenitors. The balance between these division modes determines the number and types of neurons formed in the cortex thereby affecting cortical functioning. Here, we investigate the role of primary cilia in controlling the decision between forming neurons directly or indirectly. We show that a mutation in the ciliary gene *Inpp5e* leads to a transient increase in direct neurogenesis and subsequently to an overproduction of layer V neurons in newborn mice. Loss of *Inpp5e* also affects ciliary structure coinciding with reduced Gli3 repressor levels. Genetically restoring Gli3 repressor rescues the decreased indirect neurogenesis in *Inpp5e* mutants. Overall, our analyses reveal how primary cilia determine neuronal subtype composition of the cortex by controlling direct versus indirect neurogenesis. These findings have implications for understanding cortical malformations in ciliopathies with *INPP5E* mutations.

44 **INTRODUCTION**

45

46 Building a functional cerebral cortex which confers humans with their unique cognitive
47 capabilities requires controlling the proliferation of neural progenitor cells and the timing and modes
48 of neurogenic cell divisions. Varying the timing and modes of neurogenesis affects neuronal
49 numbers and subtype composition of the cortex (Florio & Huttner, 2014). In the developing murine
50 cortex, radial glial cells (RGCs) represent the major neural stem cell type. Residing in the ventricular
51 zone, they express Pax6 and undergo interkinetic nuclear migration dividing at the ventricular
52 surface (Götz, Stoykova, & Gruss, 1998; Warren et al., 1999). Initially, RGCs go through rounds of
53 symmetric proliferative divisions to produce two RGCs increasing the progenitor pool but switch to
54 asymmetric divisions at the beginning of cortical neurogenesis. RGCs generate neurons in two ways,
55 either directly or indirectly via the production of basal progenitors (BPs) that settle in the
56 subventricular zone (SVZ) and express the Tbr2 transcription factor (Englund et al., 2005). In the
57 mouse, the majority of BPs divide once to produce two neurons whereas the remainders undergo
58 one additional round of symmetric proliferative division before differentiating into two neurons
59 (Haubensak, Attardo, Denk, & Huttner, 2004; Miyata et al., 2004; Noctor, Martinez-Cerdeno, Ivic, &
60 Kriegstein, 2004). In this way, BPs increase neuron output per radial glial cell and have therefore
61 been implicated in the evolutionary expansion of the mammalian cerebral cortex (Martinez-Cerdeno,
62 Noctor, & Kriegstein, 2006). Thus, the balance between direct and indirect neurogenesis is an
63 important factor in generating appropriate neuron numbers and types.

64 The mechanisms that fine tune this balance and thereby adjust the numbers and types of
65 neurons produced in the cortex have only recently been investigated. Mitotic spindle orientation
66 (Postiglione et al., 2011) and endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress (Gladwyn-Ng et al., 2018; Laguesse
67 et al., 2015) are contributing factors to control the generation of basal progenitors. In addition, levels
68 of Slit/Robo and Notch/Delta signaling were shown to be evolutionarily conserved factors that
69 determine the predominant mode of neurogenesis (Cardenas et al., 2018). Moreover, feedback
70 signals from postmitotic neurons control the fate of radial glial daughter cells involving the release of
71 Neurotrophin-3 and Fgf9 (Parthasarathy, Srivatsa, Nityanandam, & Tarabykin, 2014; Seuntjens et
72 al., 2009) as well as the activation of a Notch-dependent signaling pathway (W. Wang et al., 2016).
73 These studies highlight the importance of cell-cell signaling in controlling the cell lineage of cortical
74 progenitors (Silva, Peyre, & Nguyen, 2019) and emphasize the necessity of studying the cellular
75 mechanisms by which these signals control the decision by RGCs to undergo direct or indirect
76 neurogenesis.

77 Given the importance of cell-cell signaling, it is likely that the primary cilium, a signaling hub
78 in embryogenesis in general and in neural development in particular (Valente, Rosti, Gibbs, &
79 Gleeson, 2014), plays key roles in determining the balance between direct versus indirect
80 neurogenesis. The cilium is a subcellular protrusion that predominately emanates from the apical
81 surface of radial glial cells projecting into the ventricular lumen. The phenotypes of several mouse

lines mutant for ciliary genes underline the importance of the primary cilium in forebrain development but these mutants often suffer from severe patterning defects (Ashique et al., 2009; Besse et al., 2011; Willaredt et al., 2008) which make elucidating ciliary roles in determining the lineage of cortical progenitors difficult. To address how cilia control cortical progenitor development, we investigated corticogenesis in a mouse mutant for the ciliary gene *Inpp5e*.

INPP5E is mutated in Joubert syndrome (JS) (Bielas et al., 2009; Jacoby et al., 2009), a ciliopathy characterized by cerebellar defects in which a subset of patients also shows malformations of the cerebral cortex including heterotopias, polymicrogyria and agenesis of the corpus callosum (Valente et al., 2014). *Inpp5e* encodes Inositol polyphosphate 5 phosphatase E, an enzyme that is localized in the ciliary membrane and that hydrolyses the phosphatidylinositol polyphosphates PI(4,5)P₂ and PI(3,4,5)P₃ (Bielas et al., 2009; Jacoby et al., 2009). In this way, it controls the inositol phosphate composition of the ciliary membrane and thereby regulates the activity of several signaling pathways and cilia stability (Bielas et al., 2009; Chavez et al., 2015; Garcia-Gonzalo et al., 2015; Jacoby et al., 2009; Plotnikova et al., 2015). In contrast to *Inpp5e*'s extensively studied biochemical and cellular roles, little is known how these diverse functions are employed at the tissue level to control RGC lineage.

Here, we show that loss of *Inpp5e* function results in an increase in neuron formation at the expense of basal progenitor production in the E12.5 cortex and in an overproduction of Ctip2+ layer V neurons in newborn mutants. Moreover, RGC cilia show unusual membranous structures and/or abnormal numbers of microtubule doublets affecting the signaling capabilities of the cilium. The levels of Gli3 repressor (Gli3R), a critical regulator of cortical stem cell development (Hasenpusch-Theil et al., 2018; H. Wang, Ge, Uchida, Luu, & Ahn, 2011), is reduced and re-introducing Gli3R rescues the decreased formation of basal progenitors. Taken together, these findings implicate *Inpp5e* and the primary cilium in controlling the decision of RGCs to either undergo direct neurogenesis or to form basal progenitors, thereby governing the neuronal subtype composition of the cerebral cortex.

109 RESULTS

110

111 ***Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos show mild telencephalic patterning defects**

112 Controlling the balance between direct and indirect neurogenesis in the developing cerebral
113 cortex is mediated by cell-cell signaling (Cardenas et al., 2018) and hence may involve the primary
114 cilium. To investigate potential ciliary roles, we started characterizing cortical stem cell development
115 in embryos mutant for the *Inpp5e* gene which has a prominent role in ciliary signaling and stability.
116 Mutations in ciliary genes have previously been found to result in telencephalon patterning defects,
117 most notably in a ventralisation of the dorsal telencephalon and/or in defects at the corticoseptal
118 (CSB) and pallial/subpallial boundaries (PSPB) (Ashique et al., 2009; Besse et al., 2011; Willaredt
119 et al., 2008). Therefore, we first considered the possibility that such early patterning defects may be
120 present in *Inpp5e* mutant embryos and could affect cortical stem cell development. In situ
121 hybridization and immunofluorescence analyses of E12.5 control and *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos revealed
122 no obvious effect on the expression of dorsal and ventral telencephalic markers at the corticoseptal
123 boundary (Figure 1-figure supplement 1A-F). In contrast, the pallial/subpallial boundary was not well
124 defined with a few scattered Pax6+ and *Dlx2* expressing cells on the wrong side of the boundary,
125 i.e. in the subpallium and pallium, respectively (Figure 1-figure supplement 1G-L). Moreover, the
126 hippocampal anlage appeared smaller and disorganized with low level and diffuse expression of
127 cortical hem markers (Figure 1-figure supplement 2), consistent with known roles of Wnt/β-catenin
128 and Bmp signaling in hippocampal development (Galceran, Miyashita-Lin, Devaney, Rubenstein, &
129 Grosschedl, 2000; Lee, Tole, Grove, & McMahon, 2000). In contrast, progenitors in the neocortical
130 ventricular zone of *Inpp5e* mutant mice expressed the progenitor markers *Emx1*, *Lhx2*, *Pax6* and
131 *Ngn2*, though the levels of Pax6 protein expression appeared reduced in the medial neocortex
132 suggestive of a steeper lateral to medial Pax6 expression gradient in mutant embryos. These
133 expression patterns were maintained in E14.5 *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos but revealed an area in the very
134 caudal/dorsal telencephalon where the neocortex was folded (Figure 1-figure supplement 3). These
135 folds became more prominent at more caudal levels and were also present in the hippocampal
136 anlage. Taken together, these findings indicate that *Inpp5e* mutants have mild patterning defects
137 affecting the integrity of the PSPB, hippocampal development and the caudal-most neocortex while
138 the rostral neocortex shows no gross malformation or mispatterning and can therefore be analysed
139 for effects of the *Inpp5e* mutation on direct and indirect neurogenesis.

140

141 ***Inpp5e* controls direct vs indirect neurogenesis in the lateral neocortex**

142 Based upon these findings, we started analyzing the proliferation and differentiation of radial
143 glial cells in *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos in the rostrolateral and rostromedial neocortex to avoid the
144 regionalization defects described above. As a first step, we determined the proportion of radial glial
145 cells, basal progenitors and neurons in these regions in E12.5 embryos. Double

146 immunofluorescence for PCNA which labels all progenitor cells (Hall et al., 1990) and the radial glial
147 marker Pax6 did not reveal differences in the proportions of radial glial cells at both medial and lateral
148 levels (Fig. 1A-D). In contrast, the proportion of Tbr2+ basal progenitors was reduced laterally but
149 not medially (Fig. 1E-H). This decrease coincided with an increase in Tbr1+ neurons specifically in
150 the lateral neocortex (Fig. 1I-L).

151 To determine whether these alterations are maintained at a later developmental stage, we
152 repeated this investigation in E14.5 embryos. This analysis revealed no significant differences in the
153 proportion of Pax6+ RGCs (Fig. 2A-D). Similarly, there was no alteration in the proportion of Tbr2+
154 basal progenitors in lateral neocortex, however, their proportion was reduced medially (Fig. 2E-H).
155 To label cortical projection neurons, we used double immunofluorescence for Tbr1 and Ctip2 which
156 allowed us to distinguish between Tbr1+Ctip2+ and Tbr1-Ctip2+ neurons. Quantifying these
157 subpopulations showed no effect on the formation of Tbr1+ Ctip2+ neurons in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos. In
158 contrast, the proportion of Tbr1- Ctip2+ neurons was reduced medially but increased in the lateral
159 neocortex (Fig. 2I-N). Taken together with our E12.5 analyses, these findings show that in the lateral
160 neocortex of *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} an increase in the proportion of Tbr1+ neurons at E12.5 is followed by an
161 augmented fraction of Tbr1- Ctip2+ neurons at E14.5 whereas the proportion of basal progenitors
162 recovered after an initial down-regulation.

163 To address the defective cellular processes underlying these neurogenesis defects in *Inpp5e*
164 mutants, we first investigated programmed cell death and found few apoptotic cells in the control
165 and mutant cortex (Figure 3-figure supplement 1). Next, we measured proliferation rates of cortical
166 progenitors and performed double immunofluorescence for PCNA and pHH3 which labels mitotic
167 radial glial cells located at the ventricular surface and dividing basal progenitors in abventricular
168 positions (Figure 3-figure supplement 2). This analysis revealed no statistically significant differences
169 in the E12.5 and E14.5 lateral neocortex of control and *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos. The proportion of mitotic
170 apical and basal progenitors, however, was reduced in the E12.5 medial neocortex (Figure 3-figure
171 supplement 2). Interestingly, this decrease in the fraction of mitotic basal progenitors precedes the
172 reduced proportion of basal progenitors in the E14.5 medial neocortex (Fig. 2E-H).

173 The cell cycle represents another key regulator of neuronal differentiation and a mutation in
174 *Kif3a* affects ciliogenesis and the cell cycle in the developing neocortex (Wilson, Wilson, Wang,
175 Wang, & McConnell, 2012). To investigate the possibility of altered cell cycle kinetics, we used a
176 BrdU/IdU double labelling strategy (Martynoga, Morrison, Price, & Mason, 2005; Nowakowski,
177 Lewin, & Miller, 1989) to determine S phase length and total cell cycle length in radial glial cells and
178 found no statistically significant changes in these parameters (Figure 3-figure supplement 3).

179 Finally, the increased neuron production could also be explained by an increase in direct
180 neurogenesis at the expense of basal progenitor cell formation. To test this possibility, we gave BrdU
181 to E11.5 pregnant mice 24h before dissecting the embryos. We then used BrdU immunostaining in
182 conjunction with Tbr1 and Tbr2 to identify the neurons and basal progenitors formed in the lateral
183 neocortex within the 24h time period. This analysis showed that the proportion of Tbr1+ neurons

184 compared to the total number of BrdU+ cells increased while the Tbr2+ proportion decreased in
185 *Inpp5e* mutants (Fig. 3). Since the cell cycle of basal progenitors is longer than 24h (Arai et al.,
186 2011), the 24h interval used in our cell cycle exit experiment was too short for newly formed basal
187 progenitors to undergo one additional round of the cell cycle and as the BrdU label would have been
188 diluted with a further round of division, this analysis supports our hypothesis that direct neurogenesis
189 became more prevalent in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} radial glial cells.

190

191 **Cortical malformations in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos**

192 Next, we investigated the consequences of this increase in direct neurogenesis on cortical
193 size and layer formation. Since *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} newborn pups die perinatally (Bielas et al., 2009), we
194 focused our analysis on E18.5 embryos. The mutant lacked obvious olfactory bulbs, as revealed by
195 whole mounts of control and mutant brains (Figure 4-figure supplement 1). To gain insights into the
196 overall histology of the mutant forebrain, we stained coronal sections with DAPI. This analysis
197 showed that most of the mutant cortex was thinner except for the rostrolateral level (Figure 4-figure
198 supplement 2). In addition, the hippocampus was malformed with a smaller dentate gyrus.
199 Investigating the expression of markers characteristic of the entire hippocampus (*Nrp2*; (Galceran
200 et al., 2000)), the CA1 field (*Scip1*; (Frantz, Böhner, Akers, & McConnell, 1994)) and the dentate
201 gyrus (*Prox1*; (Oliver et al., 1993)) showed that these hippocampal structures were present but were
202 severely reduced in size and disorganized in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos (Figure 4-figure supplement 3). In
203 addition, the corpus callosum, the major axon tract connecting the two cerebral hemispheres, was
204 smaller. We confirmed this effect by staining callosal axons and surrounding glial cells that guide
205 these axons to the contralateral hemisphere with L1 and GFAP, respectively (Figure 4-figure
206 supplement 4).

207 After characterizing the gross morphology of the *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} cortex, we next investigated
208 whether the increased neuron formation in E12.5 mutant embryos led to changes in the neuronal
209 subtype composition of the E18.5 cortex. To this end, we used immunofluorescence labelling for
210 Tbr1 and Ctip2 to analyse the formation of layer VI and V neurons, respectively, whereas *Satb2*
211 served as a layer II-IV marker (Fig. 4). Inspecting these immunostainings at low magnification
212 showed that Tbr1+, Ctip2+ and *Satb2*+ neurons occupied their correct relative laminar positions in
213 *Inpp5e* mutants (Fig. 4A-F) except for neuronal heterotopias which were present in all mutant brains,
214 though their number and position varied (Fig. 4D). These immunostainings also revealed a medial
215 shift in the position of the rhinal fissure, a sulcus that is conserved across mammalian species and
216 separates neocortex from the paleocortical piriform cortex (Ariens-Kapers, Huber, & Crosby, 1936).
217 This shift was more marked caudally and suggests a dramatic expansion of the *Inpp5e* mutant
218 piriform cortex at the expense of neocortex at caudal most levels (Fig. 4D-F). Using the Tbr1/Ctip2
219 and *Satb2* stainings, we determined the proportions of deep and superficial layer neurons,
220 respectively. Because of the expanded piriform cortex in *Inpp5e* mutants, we limited this

investigation to the unaffected rostral neocortex. In the rostrolateral neocortex, we found the proportion of Tbr1+ neurons to be reduced (Fig. 4G, H, M). This reduction coincided with an increased proportion of Ctip2+ layer V neurons (Fig. 4I, J, N) while the Satb2 population was unchanged (Fig. 4K, L, O). In contrast, the rostromedial neocortex did not show any differences (Fig. 4P-X). Thus, the increase in direct neurogenesis in the lateral neocortex during earlier development concurs with a change in the proportions of E18.5 Tbr1+ and Ctip2+ deep layer neurons.

A mutation in the ciliary gene *Tctn2* leads to increased telencephalic neurogenesis

To start to unravel the mechanisms by which *Inpp5e* controls cortical stem cell development, we first analysed whether the increased early neurogenesis is restricted to *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} mutants or is observed in another mutant affecting cilia. To this end, we focused on the *TECTONIC 2* (*TCTN2*) gene which is crucial for ciliary transition zone architecture (Shi et al., 2017) and which, like *INPP5E*, is mutated in Joubert Syndrome (Garcia-Gonzalo et al., 2011). Interestingly, E12.5 *Tctn2*^{ΔΔ} mutant embryos (Reiter & Skarnes, 2006) also showed an increased proportion of Tbr1+ projection neurons and a concomitant decrease in Tbr2+ basal progenitors in the dorsolateral telencephalon (Fig. 5). Due to embryonic lethality, however, we were not able to investigate the formation of cortical neurons at later stages.

Ciliary defects in the forebrain of E12.5 *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos

Our findings in the *Inpp5e* and *Tctn2* mutants suggested a role for cilia in cortical progenitor cells to control early neurogenesis. Therefore, we examined the presence and the structure of primary cilia in the developing forebrain of *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos by immunofluorescence and electron microscopy. We first analyzed the presence of the small GTPase Arl13b, enriched in ciliary membranes, and of γ -Tubulin (γ Tub), a component of basal bodies (Casparly, Larkins, & Anderson, 2007). We found no major difference in the number or the apical localization of cilia in control and *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} neuroepithelial cells in the E12.5 telencephalon (Fig. 6A,B) or diencephalon (data not shown).

To gain insights into the fine structure of these primary cilia we performed electron microscopy analyses. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) provided an observation of the cilia protruding into the telencephalic ventricles. In control embryos, almost all radial glial cells had a single, ~1 μ m long primary cilium (Fig. 6C), as previously described (Besse et al., 2011). Some *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} mutant cells also displayed an apparently normal cilium (Fig. 6D, E), whereas other cells harbored abnormal cilia, either with a lateral blob (arrowhead in Fig. 6D, E) or as a short and bloated cilium-like protrusion (arrows in Fig. 6D,E).

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) confirmed the presence of abnormal cilia in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos. Cilia were recognized by basal bodies anchored to the apical membrane in both control and *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} radial glial cells (Fig. 6F-L, N, Q). However, in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} cells, some cilia lacked

the axoneme and showed unusual membranous structures that resemble budding vesicles emerging from the lateral surface of the cilium (Fig. 6G, K), internal vesicles (arrows in Fig. 6I, K, L), or undulating peripheral membranes (Fig. 6I), indicating an *Inpp5e*-dependent defect in ciliary membrane morphology. Transverse sections revealed the presence of cilia with apparently normal 9+0 axonemes, as well as cilia containing abnormal numbers of microtubule doublets in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos (Fig. 6O, P). To quantify these ciliary defects, we counted the number of normal versus abnormal cilia on TEM images obtained from control and *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos, and found an increase in abnormal cilia in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} compared to control embryos (Fig. 6R). Taken together, a significant number of abnormal primary cilia were found at the apical end of E12.5 radial glial cells in the forebrain of *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos. These abnormalities are consistent with a role of *Inpp5e* in maintaining cilia stability (Jacoby et al., 2009).

Restoring Gli3 repressor ratio rescues cortical malformations in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos

Primary cilia play a crucial role in Shh signaling by controlling the proteolytic cleavage of full length Gli3 (Gli3FL) into the Gli3 repressor form (Gli3R) in the absence of Shh and by converting Gli3FL into the transcriptional activator Gli3A in the presence of Shh. Moreover, the dorsal telencephalon predominately forms Gli3R (Fotaki, Yu, Zaki, Mason, & Price, 2006) and mice that can only produce Gli3R have no obvious defect in cortical development (Besse et al., 2011; Böse, Grotewold, & Rüther, 2002). In addition, we recently showed that Gli3 has a prominent role in radial glial cells controlling the switch from symmetric proliferative to asymmetric neurogenic cell division (Hasenpusch-Theil et al., 2018). Therefore, we hypothesized that alterations in Gli3 processing caused by abnormal cilia function underlies the increased direct neurogenesis and the cortical malformations in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos. In situ hybridization showed that *Gli3* mRNA expression might be slightly reduced but the overall expression pattern in the telencephalon remains unaffected (Figure 7-figure supplement 1). We next investigated the formation of Gli3FL and Gli3R in the E12.5 dorsal telencephalon of *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos using Western blots. This analysis revealed no change in the levels of Gli3FL but a significant decrease in Gli3R which resulted in a reduced Gli3R to Gli3FL ratio in the mutant (Fig. 7A-D) suggesting that the *Inpp5e* mutation affects Gli3 processing.

The next set of experiments aimed to clarify a role for the reduced Gli3 processing. To this end, we restored Gli3R levels by crossing *Inpp5e* mutants with *Gli3*^{Δ699/+} mice that can only produce Gli3R in a cilia-independent manner (Besse et al., 2011; Böse et al., 2002). Overall inspection of *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ}; *Gli3*^{Δ699/+} embryos revealed restored eye formation whereas *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos either completely lacked eyes or showed microphthalmia (Jacoby et al., 2009) (Figure 7-figure supplement 2). Moreover, the overall morphology of the telencephalon is much improved in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ}; *Gli3*^{Δ699/+} embryos as compared to *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos. In E18.5 *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} *Gli3*^{Δ699/+} mutants, the corpus callosum has a thickness indistinguishable from that of control embryos (Figure 7-figure supplement

295 3). In E12.5 and E14.5 *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ};*Gli3*^{Δ699/+} embryos, the neocortex lacks the undulations of the VZ
296 present in *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos (data not shown) and the morphology of the hippocampal anlage is
297 more akin to that in wild-type embryos but it is still smaller and less bulged (Fig. 7E, G, I).

298 We also determined the proportions of basal progenitors and Tbr1+ neurons at E12.5 which
299 were decreased and increased, respectively, in the lateral neocortex of *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos. While
300 these changes were still present in *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} littermate embryos, there was no statistically significant
301 difference between control and *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ};*Gli3*^{Δ699/+} embryos (Fig. 7E-L). This finding indicates that
302 the neurogenesis phenotype of E12.5 *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} mutants is rescued by a single copy of the *Gli3*^{Δ699}
303 allele. We next investigated the formation of basal progenitors and of cortical projection neurons in
304 E14.5 *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ};*Gli3*^{Δ699/+} embryos. The proportion of Tbr1+Ctip2+ neurons was not affected in the
305 medial neocortex of E14.5 *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ};*Gli3*^{Δ699/+} embryos. In contrast, the proportion of Tbr1-Ctip2+
306 neurons was reduced as in *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} mutants (Fig. 8A, C, E, I, J). Similarly, the proportions of basal
307 progenitors in the medial *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} *Gli3*^{Δ699/+} neocortex was slightly improved compared to *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ}
308 embryos but significantly smaller than in control embryos (Fig. 8B, D, F, K). As re-introducing a single
309 *Gli3*^{Δ699} allele does not completely rescue the *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} neurogenesis phenotype, we generated
310 *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos homozygous for the *Gli3*^{Δ699} allele. Interestingly, the morphology of the dorsal
311 telencephalon including the hippocampal formation was indistinguishable between control and
312 *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ};*Gli3*^{Δ699/Δ699} embryos (Fig. 8A, B, G, H) and the formation of Tbr1-Ctip2+ neurons and Tbr2+
313 basal progenitors were not affected (Fig. 8G, H, J, K). Taken together, these findings indicate that
314 re-introducing a single copy of the *Gli3R* allele into the *Inpp5e* mutant background leads to a partial
315 rescue of cortical neurogenesis in *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos whereas two copies are required for a full
316 rescue.

317

318 **DISCUSSION**

319 Generating a functional cerebral cortex requires a finely tuned balance between direct and
320 indirect neurogenesis to form subtypes of cortical projection neurons in appropriate numbers. Here,
321 we show that the ciliary mouse mutants *Inpp5e* and *Tctn2* present with a transient increase in
322 neurons forming directly from radial glia progenitors in the lateral neocortex at the expense of basal
323 progenitor formation. This increase in neurogenesis results in augmented formation of Ctip2+ layer
324 V neurons in the *Inpp5e* mutant cortex. Our studies also revealed that the *Inpp5e* mutation interfered
325 with the stability of the RGC primary cilium and its signaling functions, leading to a reduction in the
326 Gli3R levels. Since re-introducing Gli3R in an *Inpp5e* mutant background restored the decreased
327 formation of normal proportions of basal progenitors and neurons, our findings implicate a novel role
328 for primary cilia in controlling the signaling events that direct the decision of RGCs to undergo either
329 direct or indirect neurogenesis.

330

331 **Primary cilia affect the decision between direct and indirect neurogenesis**

332 Radial glial cells in the developing mouse neocortex have the potential to undergo symmetric
333 proliferative or asymmetric cell divisions with the latter division mode producing neurons in a direct
334 manner or indirectly via basal progenitors. Balancing out these division modes is important not only
335 to determine final neuronal output and cortical size but also the types of cortical projection neurons
336 and, hence, subtype composition of the adult neocortex. In the E12.5 *Inpp5e* and *Tctn2* mouse
337 mutants, we identified an increased formation of neurons in the lateral neocortex. Based on our cell
338 cycle exit experiment additional neurons are formed from RGCs at the expense of basal progenitors.
339 Given the cell cycle length of basal progenitors of >24 hours (Arai et al., 2011), it is unlikely that new
340 born basal progenitors would have undergone an additional round of cell division to produce two
341 neurons within the time frame of this experiment. Such an extra division would also have diluted the
342 BrdU label. We therefore conclude that the *Inpp5e* mutation caused RGCs to preferentially produce
343 neurons directly. Moreover, neurogenesis defects only became obvious at E14.5 in the medial
344 neocortex. This delay might reflect the neurogenic gradient in the neocortex or might be related to
345 specific gene expression changes such as reduced Pax6 expression in medial neocortical
346 progenitors.

347 Interestingly, the increase in direct neurogenesis led to an increased proportion of Ctip2+
348 deep layer V neurons in the E18.5 neocortex but did not coincide with a reduced proportion of upper
349 layer neurons. This effect could be explained in several mutually non-exclusive ways. First, neurons
350 born at E12.5 initially express both Ctip2 and Tbr1 (Fig. 7) and later down-regulate Ctip2. *Inpp5e*
351 could therefore affect the signaling that controls this downregulation. Secondly, the proportions of
352 basal progenitors and neurons were normalized in E14.5 mutants. Since basal progenitors are a
353 main source of upper layer neurons (Arnold et al., 2008; Vasistha et al., 2015), this normalization
354 would account for the sufficient numbers of Satb2+ upper layer neurons. Newly formed projection
355 neurons signal back to RGCs via Jag1, Fgf9 and Neurotrophin 3 (Parthasarathy et al., 2014;

356 Seuntjens et al., 2009; W. Wang et al., 2016) to control the sequential production of deep and upper
357 layer neurons and of glia (Silva et al., 2019). *Inpp5e* might affect these signals by controlling cilia
358 stability and/or levels of PI(3,4,5)P₃ (Bielas et al., 2009; Jacoby et al., 2009) that acts as a second
359 messenger in receptor tyrosine kinase signaling. Regardless of the exact mechanism, our findings
360 suggest a novel, spatially and temporally restricted role for *Inpp5e* in controlling the decision between
361 direct and indirect neurogenesis. This function differs from those described for other cilia mutants.
362 Conditional inactivation of *Ift88* and *Kif3a* leads to a larger cortex (Foerster et al., 2017; Wilson et
363 al., 2012) with a modest increase in BP production in the absence of a delay in neurogenesis
364 (Foerster et al., 2017) while *Rpgrip1l* mutants have reduced numbers of both basal progenitors and
365 neurons (Postel, Karam, Pezeron, Schneider-Maunoury, & Clement, 2019). These findings highlight
366 the multiple and varied roles cilia play in cortical development.

367

368 ***Inpp5e* controls direct/indirect neurogenesis through Gli3 processing**

369 Our study also shed lights into the mechanisms by which *Inpp5e* controls the decision
370 between direct and indirect neurogenesis. Most notably, the Gli3R level and Gli3R/Gli3FL ratio are
371 decreased in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos. While the *Inpp5e* mutation does not lead to an up-regulation of Shh
372 signaling in the dorsal telencephalon (Magnani et al., 2015), re-introducing a single or two copies of
373 Gli3R in an *Inpp5e* mutant background partially and fully restores the neurogenesis defects,
374 respectively. This rescue indicates that reduced levels of Gli3R rather than the reduction in the
375 Gli3R/Gli3FL ratio are responsible for the prevalence of direct neurogenesis in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos.
376 This idea is consistent with the findings that (i) *Gli3*^{Δ699/Δ699} embryos that cannot produce Gli3FL and
377 Gli3A show no obvious phenotype in cortical development (Besse et al., 2011; Böse et al., 2002),
378 (ii) dorsal telencephalic patterning defects in *Gli3*^{Xt/Xt} mutants are not rescued in *Shh*^{-/-}/*Gli3*^{Xt/Xt} double
379 mutants (Rallu et al., 2002; Rash & Grove, 2007), (iii) Shh promotes the generation of olfactory bulb
380 interneurons and cortical oligodendrocytes and neurogenesis in the subventricular zone by reducing
381 Gli3R rather than by promoting Gli activator function (Petrova, Garcia, & Joyner, 2013; H. Wang,
382 Kane, Lee, & Ahn, 2014; Zhang et al., 2020). In addition, there is also a dramatic rescue of eye
383 development and the rescue also extends to other malformations of the *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} forebrain, including
384 the corpus callosum, the hippocampus and the expansion of the piriform cortex, structures that are
385 also affected in *Gli3* null and hypomorphic mutants (Amaniti et al., 2015; Johnson, 1967; Magnani
386 et al., 2014; Theil, Alvarez-Bolado, Walter, & Rütger, 1999; Wiegering, Petzsch, Kohrer, Ruther, &
387 Gerhardt, 2019). Taken together, these findings support the idea that *Inpp5e* and the primary cilium
388 control key processes in cortical development by regulating the formation of Gli3R.

389 Our analyses support several mutually non-exclusive mechanisms how the *Inpp5e* mutation
390 impacts on Gli3 processing. First, our electron microscopy study revealed severe structural
391 abnormalities in large proportions of cilia. The *Inpp5e* phosphatase hydrolyses PI(3,4,5)P₃, which is
392 essential for the effective activation of the serine threonine kinase Akt (Kisseleva, Cao, & Majerus,
393 2002; Plotnikova et al., 2015). Following PI(3,4,5)P₃ binding, Akt translocates to the membrane and

394 becomes phosphorylated at T308 by phosphoinositide dependent kinase-1 (Pdk1) and at S473 by
 395 mammalian target of rapamycin complex (mTORC2) (Yu & Cui, 2016). Consistent with the loss of
 396 *Inpp5e* function and a resulting increase in PI(3,4,5)P₃, western blot analysis revealed elevated
 397 pAkt^{S473} levels (data not shown). Increased phosphorylation at this site has been implicated in
 398 inhibiting cilia assembly and promoting cilia disassembly (Mao et al., 2019) and could hence explain
 399 the structural defects of RGC *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} cilia. Secondly, *Inpp5e* could control Gli3 processing through
 400 its effect on the transition zone (TZ). It is required for TZ molecular organisation (Dyson et al., 2017)
 401 and its substrate PI(4,5)P₂ plays a role in TZ maturation in *Drosophila* (Gupta, Fabian, & Brill, 2018).
 402 This model is further supported by our finding that a mouse mutant for the TZ protein Tctn2
 403 phenocopies the *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} neurogenesis defect. In turn, several mouse mutants defective for TZ
 404 proteins are required for *Inpp5e* localization to cilia and show microphthalmia (Garcia-Gonzalo et al.,
 405 2011; Garcia-Gonzalo et al., 2015; Sang et al., 2011; Yee et al., 2015). Tctn proteins are also
 406 required for Gli3 processing (Garcia-Gonzalo et al., 2011; Sang et al., 2011; Thomas et al., 2012; C.
 407 Wang, Li, Meng, & Wang, 2017) and the TZ protein Rpgrip1l controls the activity of the proteasome
 408 at the basal body responsible for proteolytic cleavage of Gli3 (Gerhardt et al., 2015). Taken together,
 409 these findings indicate that *Inpp5e* mutation might affect the ability of RGCs to switch to indirect
 410 neurogenesis through defects in cilia stability and/or the integrity of the ciliary transition zone (Fig.
 411 9).
 412

413 **Implications for Joubert Syndrome**

414 In humans, hypomorphic *INPP5E* mutations contribute to Joubert Syndrome (JS), a
 415 ciliopathy characterized by cerebellar malformations and concomitant ataxia and breathing
 416 abnormalities. In addition, a subset of JS patients exhibit cortical abnormalities including
 417 polymicrogyria, neuronal heterotopias and agenesis of the corpus callosum (Poretti, Huisman,
 418 Scheer, & Boltshauser, 2011). Strikingly, the *Inpp5e* mouse mutant also shows several of these
 419 abnormalities. In the caudal telencephalon, the otherwise lissencephalic cortex formed folds
 420 reminiscent of the polymicrogyria in JS patients. In addition, the mutant formed leptomeningeal
 421 heterotopias with 100% penetrance, but their number and location varied. Mutations in ciliary genes
 422 were previously associated with heterotopia formation in humans and mice (Magnani et al., 2015;
 423 Uzquiano et al., 2019). Mice carrying mutations in the *Emi1* gene encoding a microtubule-associated
 424 protein show subcortical heterotopias due to a mispositioning of radial glial cells and impaired
 425 primary cilia formation (Uzquiano et al., 2019). Finally, the corpus callosum is thinner but callosal
 426 axons project to the contralateral cerebral hemisphere in *Inpp5e* mutants. This phenotype is milder
 427 compared to that of other mouse mutants with altered cilia that show complete agenesis of the
 428 corpus callosum with callosal axons forming Probst bundles (Benadiba et al., 2012; Laclef et al.,
 429 2015; Putoux et al., 2019). Unlike these other ciliary mutants, the corticoseptal boundary which plays
 430 a crucial role in positioning guidepost cells that control midline crossing of callosal axons (Magnani
 431 et al., 2014) is not obviously affected in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos. Instead, the thinner corpus callosum is

432 likely to be the result of reduced size of the caudal neocortex. Despite these differences, however,
433 re-introducing Gli3R into the cilia mutant background restores callosal development in both groups
434 of mutants suggesting that cilia control two independent steps in corpus callosum formation by
435 regulating Gli3 processing. Thus, the *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} mutant recapitulates cortical abnormalities in JS
436 patients and starts to help unravelling the pathomechanisms underlying these defects.

437

Key Resources Table				
Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
genetic reagent (<i>Mus musculus</i>)	Inpp5e ^{delta} (Inpp5e ^{tm1.2Sc_h})	PMID: 19668215	MGI:4360187	
genetic reagent (<i>Mus musculus</i>)	Gli3 ^{delta699} (Gli3 ^{tm1Urt})	PMID: 11978771	MGI:2182576	
genetic reagent (<i>Mus musculus</i>)	Tctn2 ^{delta} (Tctn2 ^{tm1.1Reit})	PMID: 21725307	MGI:5292130	
antibody	anti-Arl13b (clone N295B/66) (Mouse monoclonal)	UC Davis/NIH NeuroMab Facility	Cat# 75-287 RRID:AB_11000053	IF (1:1500)
antibody	anti-BrdU (Rat monoclonal)	Abcam	Cat# ab6326 RRID:AB_305426	IF (1:50)
antibody	anti-BrdU/IdU (B44) (Mouse monoclonal)	BD Biosciences	Cat# 347580 RRID:AB_2313824	IF (1:500)
antibody	cleaved-Caspase3 (Asp175) (5A1E) (Rabbit polyclonal)	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat# 9664 RRID:AB_2070042	IF (1:100)
antibody	anti-Ctip2 (Rat monoclonal)	Abcam	Cat# ab18465 RRID:AB_2064130	IF (1:1000)

antibody	anti-GFAP (Rabbit polyclonal)	Agilent	Cat# Z0334 RRID:AB_100 13382	IF (1:1000)
antibody	anti-L1, clone 324 (Rat monoclonal)	Millipore	Cat# MAB5272 RRID:AB_213 3200	IF (1:1000)
antibody	anti-Pax6 (Rabbit polyclonal)	Biolegend	Cat# 901301 RRID:AB_256 5003	IF (1:400)
antibody	anti-PCNA (PC10) (Mouse monoclonal)	Abcam	Cat# ab29 RRID:AB_303 394	IF (1:500)
antibody	anti-Prox1 (Rabbit polyclonal)	Reliatech	Cat# 102- PA32 RRID:AB_100 13821	IHC (1:1000)
A9ntibody	anti-pHH3 (Rabbit polyclonal)	Millipore	Cat# 06-570 RRID:AB_310 177	IF (1:100)
antibody	anti-Satb2 (Mouse monoclonal)	Abcam	Cat# ab51502 RRID:AB_882 455	IF (1:200)
antibody	anti-Tbr1 (Rabbit polyclonal)	Abcam	Cat# ab31940 RRID:AB_220 0219	IF (1:400)
antibody	anti-Tbr2 (Rabbit polyclonal)	Abcam	Cat# ab23345 RRID:AB_77 8267	IF (1:1000)

antibody	anti- γ TUB, (Rabbit polyclonal)	Sigma Aldrich	Cat# SAB4503045 RRID:AB_10747 615	IF (1:100)
antibody	anti-mouse Cy2 secondary (Donkey polyclonal)	Jackson ImmunoResearch Labs	Cat# 715- 225-151 RRID:AB_234 0827	IF (1:100)
antibody	anti-rabbit Cy3 secondary (Donkey polyclonal)	Jackson ImmunoResearch Labs	Cat# 711- 165-152	IF (1:100)
antibody	anti-rat Cy3 secondary (Goat polyclonal)	Jackson ImmunoResearch Labs	Cat# 711- 165-152 RRID:AB_230 7443	IF (1:100)
antibody	Anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488 secondary (Goat polyclonal)	Molecular Probes (now: Invitrogen)	Cat# A-11008 RRID:AB_143 165	IF (1:200)
antibody	anti-rat Alexa Fluor 647 secondary (Goat polyclonal)	Molecular Probes (now: Invitrogen)	Cat# A-21247 RRID:AB_141 778	IF (1:200)
antibody	Biotinylated swine anti- rabbit IgG	Dako	Cat# E0431	IF (1:400)
antibody	Streptavidin, Alexa Fluor 488 conjugate antibody	Molecular Probes (now: Invitrogen)	Cat# S32354 RRID:AB_231 5383	IF (1:100)

antibody	Streptavidin, Alexa Fluor® 568 conjugate antibody	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# S-11226 RRID:AB_2315774	IF (1:100)
antibody	biotinylated goat anti-rabbit IgG	Dako (now: Agilent)	Cat# E0432 RRID:AB_2313609	IF (1:400)
antibody	anti-h/m Gli3 (Goat polyclonal)	R&D Systems	Cat# AF3690 RRID:AB_2232499	WB (1:500)
antibody	anti-β-Actin (clone AC-15) (Mouse monoclonal)	Abcam	Cat# ab6276 RRID:AB_2223210	WB (1:15,000)
antibody	IRDye 680RD Donkey anti-Goat IgG	LI-COR Biosciences	Cat# 926-68074 RRID:AB_10956736	WB (1:15,000)
antibody	IRDye 800CW Donkey anti-Mouse IgG	LI-COR Biosciences	Cat# 925-32212 RRID AB_2716622	WB (1:15,000)
commercial assay or kit	VECTASTAIN Elite ABC-Peroxidase Kit	Vector Laboratories	Cat# PK-6100 RRID:AB_2336819	
chemical compound, drug	IdU 5-Iodo-2'-deoxyuridine	Sigma Aldrich	Cat# I7125	(10mg/ml)
chemical compound, drug	BrdU 5-Bromo-2'-deoxyuridine	Sigma Aldrich	Cat# B5002	(10mg/ml)
software, algorithm	Fiji	PMID: 22743772?	PRID:SCR_002285	http://imagej.net/Fiji

software, algorithm	Image Studio Lite	Li-Cor	4.0	
software, algorithm	GraphPad Prism	GraphPad Software	8.4.2 (679)	
software, algorithm	Adobe Photoshop	Adobe Inc.	12.1	
other	DAPI (4',6- Diamidino-2- Phenylindole, Dihydrochlorid e)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# D1306 RRID:AB_262 9482	IF (1:2000)

MATERIAL & METHODS

Mice

All experimental work was carried out in accordance with the UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 and UK Home Office guidelines. All protocols were reviewed and approved by the named veterinary surgeons of the College of Medicine and Veterinary Medicine, the University of Edinburgh, prior to the commencement of experimental work. *Inpp5e*^Δ (*Inpp5e*^{delta}), *Gli3*^{Δ699} (*Gli3*^{delta699}) and *Tctn2*^Δ (*Tctn2*^{tm1.1Reit}) mouse lines have been described previously (Böse et al., 2002; Garcia-Gonzalo et al., 2011; Jacoby et al., 2009). *Inpp5e*^{Δ/+} mice were interbred to generate *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos; exencephalic *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos which made up ca. 25% of homozygous mutant embryos were excluded from the analyses. Wild-type and *Inpp5e*^{Δ/+} litter mate embryos served as controls. *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ}; *Gli3*^{Δ699/+} and *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ}; *Gli3*^{Δ699/Δ699} embryos were obtained from inter-crosses of *Inpp5e*^{Δ/+}; *Gli3*^{Δ699/+} mice using wild-type, *Inpp5e*^{Δ/+} and *Gli3*^{Δ699/+} embryos as controls. Embryonic (E) day 0.5 was assumed to start at midday of the day of vaginal plug discovery. Transgenic animals and embryos from both sexes were genotyped as described (Böse et al., 2002; Jacoby et al., 2009). For each marker and each stage, 3-8 embryos were analysed.

For measuring cell cycle lengths, pregnant females were intraperitoneally injected with a single dose of IdU (Sigma-Aldrich) (10mg/ml) at E12.5, followed by an injection of BrdU Sigma-Aldrich) (10mg/ml) 90 min later. Embryos were harvested 30 min after the second injection. For cell cycle exit analyses, BrdU was injected peritoneally into E11.5 pregnant females and embryos were harvested 24 hrs later.

Immunohistochemistry and in situ hybridisation

For immunohistochemistry, embryos were fixed overnight in 4% paraformaldehyde, incubated in 30% sucrose at +4°C for 24h, embedded in 30% sucrose/OCT mixture (1:1) and frozen on dry ice. Immunofluorescence staining was performed on 12 to 14 µm cryostat sections as described previously (Theil, 2005) with antibodies against Arl13b (mouse) (Neuromab 75-287; 1:1500), rat anti-BrdU (1:50, Abcam #ab6326), mouse anti-BrdU/IdU (B44) (1:50, BD Biosciences #347580), rabbit anti-Cleaved Caspase 3 (1:100, Cell Signaling Technology, #9664), rat anti-Ctip2 (1:1000, Abcam #ab18465), rabbit anti-GFAP (1:1000, Agilent/Dako #Z 0334), rat anti-L1, clone 324 (1:1000, Millipore #MAB5272), rabbit anti-Pax6 (1:400, Biolegend #901301), mouse anti-PCNA (1:500, Abcam #ab29), rabbit anti-Prox1 (1:1000, RELIAtech #102-PA32), rabbit anti-pHH3 (1:100, Millipore #06-570), mouse anti-Satb2 (1:200, Abcam #ab51502), rabbit anti-Tbr1 (1:400, Abcam #ab31940), rabbit anti-Tbr2 (1:1000, Abcam #ab23345) and rabbit anti-γTUB (Sigma-Aldrich SAB4503045; 1:100). Primary antibodies for immunohistochemistry were detected with Alexa- or Cy2/3-conjugated fluorescent secondary antibodies. The Cleaved Caspase 3 and Tbr1 signals were amplified using biotinylated secondary IgG antibody (swine anti-rabbit IgG) (1:400, Dako) followed by Alexa Fluor 488 (1:100, Invitrogen) or 568 Streptavidin (1:100, Thermo Fisher Scientific). For counter staining DAPI (1:2000, Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used. Prox1 protein was detected non-fluorescently using biotinylated goat anti-rabbit IgG (1: 400, Agilent (Dako)) followed by avidin-HRP and DAB detection using Vectastain Elite ABC peroxidase kit (Vector laboratories) as described previously (Magnani et al., 2010).

In situ hybridisation on 12µm serial paraffin sections were performed as described previously (Theil, 2005) using antisense RNA probes for *Axin2* (Lustig et al., 2002), *Bmp4* (Jones, Lyons, & Hogan, 1991), *Dbx1* (Yun, Potter, & Rubenstein, 2001), *Dlx2* (Bulfone et al., 1993), *Emx1* (Simeone et al., 1992), *Gli3* (Hui, Slusarski, Platt, Holmgren, & Joyner, 1994), *Lhx2* (Liem, Tremml, & Jessell, 1997), *Msx1* (Hill et al., 1989), *Ngn2* (Gradwohl, Fode, & Guillemot, 1996), *Nrp2* (Galceran et al., 2000), *Pax6* (Walther & Gruss, 1991), *Scip1* (Frantz et al., 1994), *Wnt2b* (Grove, Tole, Limon, Yip, & Ragsdale, 1998).

488

489 **Western blot**

Protein was extracted from the dorsal telencephalon of E12.5 wild-type and *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos (n=4 samples per genotype) as described previously (Magnani et al., 2010). 10µg protein lysates were subjected to gel electrophoresis on a 3-8% NuPAGE® Tris-Acetate gel (Life Technologies), and protein was transferred to a Immobilon-FL membrane (Millipore), which was incubated with goat anti-h/m Gli3 (1:500, R&D Systems #AF3690) and mouse anti-β-Actin antibody (1:15000, Abcam #ab6276). After incubating with donkey anti-goat IgG IRDye680RD (1:15000, LI-COR Biosciences) and donkey anti-mouse IgG IRDye800CW secondary antibodies (1:15000, Life Technologies), signal was detected using LI-COR's Odyssey Infrared Imaging System with Odyssey Software. Values for protein signal intensity were obtained using Image Studio Lite Version4.0. Gli3 repressor

499 and full length protein levels and the Gli3 repressor/full length were compared between wild-type
500 and mutant tissue using an unpaired t-test.

501

502 **Scanning and transmission electron microscopy**

503 TEM and SEM image acquisition were performed in the Cochin Imaging Facility and on the IBPS
504 EM Facility, respectively. For scanning electron microscopy, embryos were dissected in 1.22x PBS
505 (pH 7.4) and fixed overnight with 2% glutaraldehyde in 0.61x PBS (pH 7.4) at 4°C. Heads were then
506 sectioned to separate the dorsal and ventral parts of the telencephalon, exposing their ventricular
507 surfaces. Head samples were washed several times in 1.22x PBS and postfixed for 15 minutes in
508 1.22x PBS containing 1% OsO₄. Fixed samples were washed several times in ultrapure water,
509 dehydrated with a graded series of ethanol and prepared for scanning electron microscopy using the
510 critical point procedure (CPD7501, Polaron). Their surfaces were coated with a 20 nm gold layer
511 using a gold sputtering device (Scancoat Six, Edwards). Samples were observed under a Cambridge
512 S260 scanning electron microscope at 10 keV.

513 For transmission electron microscopy tissues were fixed for 1 hour with 3% glutaraldehyde, post-
514 fixed in 1.22x PBS containing 1% OsO₄, then dehydrated with a graded ethanol series. After 10
515 minutes in a 1:2 mixture of propane:epoxy resin, tissues were embedded in gelatin capsules with
516 freshly prepared epoxy resin and polymerized at 60°C for 24 hours. Sections (80 nm) obtained using
517 an ultramicrotome (Reichert Ultracut S) were stained with uranyl acetate and Reynold's lead citrate
518 and observed with a Philips CM10 transmission electron microscope.

519

520 **Statistical Analyses**

521 Data were analysed using GraphPadPrism 8 software with n=3-8 embryos for all analyses. Shapiro-
522 Wilk normality tests informed whether to use t-tests for normally distributed data and Mann Whitney
523 tests for data which did not pass the normality test. Cortical thickness was analysed using a two way
524 ANOVA followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test. A Fisher's exact test was used to analyse the
525 quantification of normal and abnormal cilia. The Gli3 rescue experiments were evaluated with one
526 way ANOVAS followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test. A single asterisk indicates significance
527 of p<0.05, two asterisks indicate significance of p<0.01 and three asterisks of p<0.001. Due to
528 morphological changes blinding was not possible and scores were validated by a second
529 independent observer. Supplementary Table 1 provides a summary of test statistics.

530

531

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533

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542

543 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

544

545 The authors declare no competing interests.

546

547 **IMPACT STATEMENT:**

548

549 Primary cilia mediated processing of the Gli3 transcription factor enables the formation of subtypes
550 of projection neurons in appropriate numbers during the development of the cerebral cortex.

551

552

553

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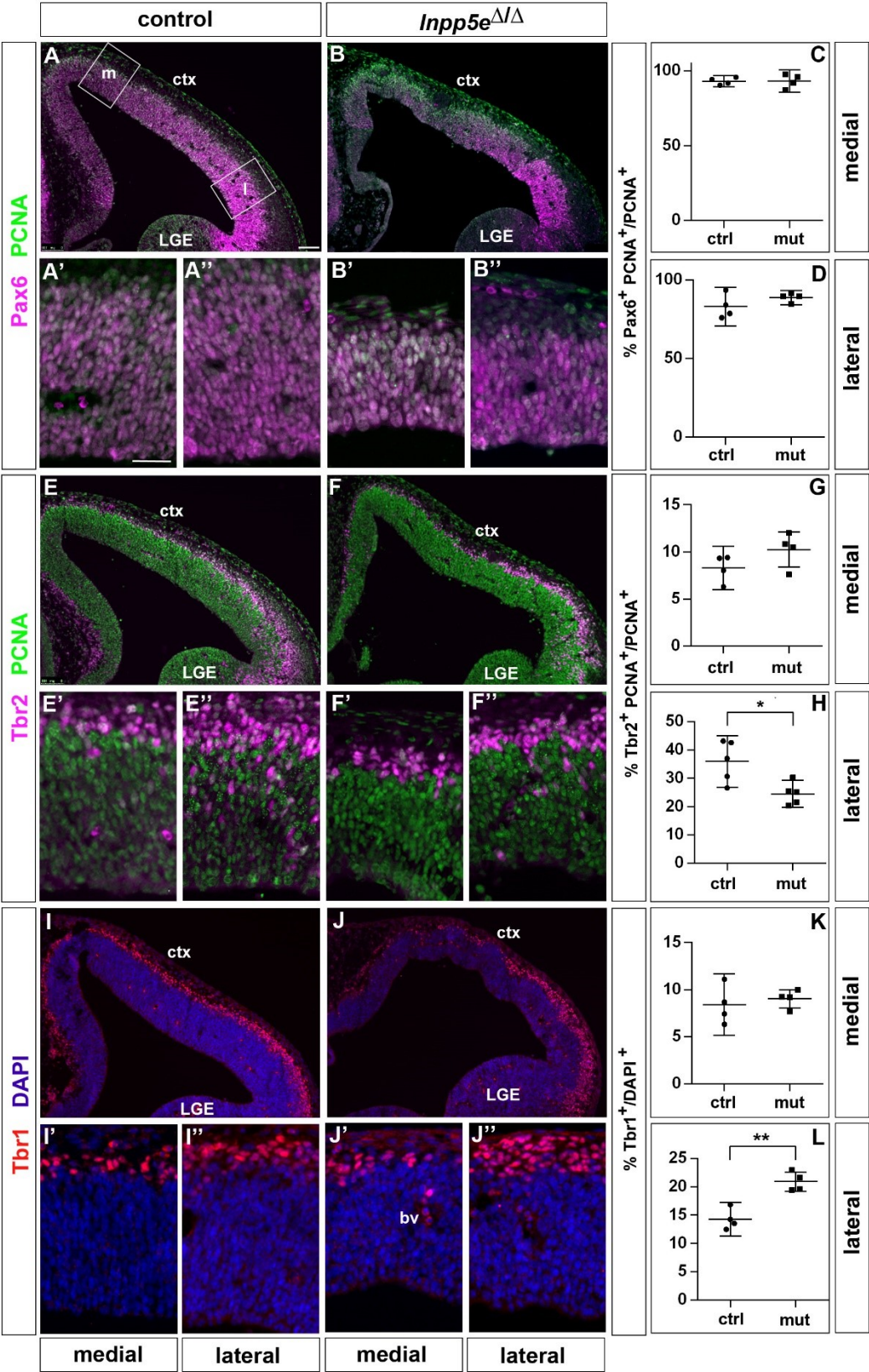
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Figure 1



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Figure 1: Increased neuron formation in the dorsolateral telencephalon of E12.5 *Inpp5*^{ΔΔ} embryos. (A-D) Pax6/PCNA double immunofluorescence staining revealed the proportion of apical

822 radial glial cells which remained unaltered in the mutant. The boxes in (A) indicate the regions in the
823 medial (m) and lateral (l) telencephalon at which cell counts were performed. (E-H) Reduced
824 proportions of basal progenitors in the lateral telencephalon as revealed by staining for Tbr2 and
825 PCNA. (I-L) Tbr1 immunostaining showed that the proportion of neurons is increased in the lateral
826 telencephalon. (A-J) The insets labelled with ' and " are representative magnifications of medial and
827 lateral levels, respectively. All statistical data are presented as means \pm 95% confidence intervals
828 (CI); unpaired t-tests; n = 4 except for (H) with n=5; * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01. Scale bar: 100 μ m (A) and
829 50 μ m (A'). ctx: cortex; LGE: lateral ganglionic eminence.

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Figure 2

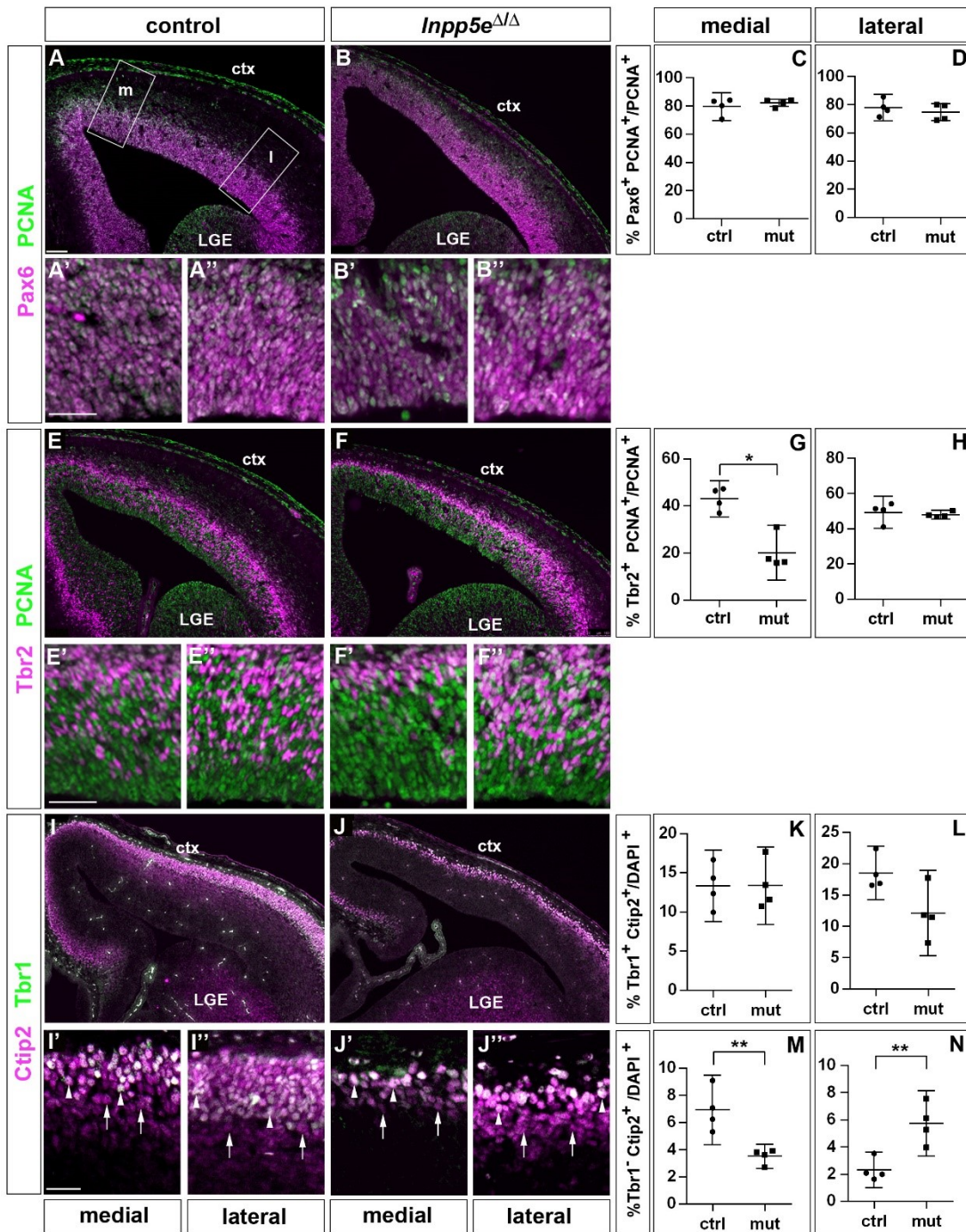


Figure 2: Proportions of radial glial cells, basal progenitors and neurons in the neocortex of *E14.5 Inpp5e Δ/Δ* embryos. (A-D) The proportion of radial glial cells remains unaffected by the *Inpp5e* mutation as revealed by Pax6/PCNA double immunofluorescence. The boxes in A indicate the regions in the medial (m) and lateral (l) telencephalon at which cell counts were performed. (E-H) Tbr2/PCNA double staining showed a reduced proportion of basal progenitors in the *Inpp5e Δ/Δ* medial but not lateral neocortex. (I-N) The proportion of Tbr1+Ctip2+ neurons is not significantly altered (I-

838 L) whereas the proportion of Tbr1-Ctip2+ neurons is decreased and increased in the medial and
839 lateral neocortex, respectively. Arrows in (I and J) label Tbr1-Ctip2+ neurons and arrowheads
840 Tbr1+Ctip2+ neurons. (A-J) The insets labelled with ' and ' are representative magnifications of
841 medial and lateral levels, respectively. All statistical data are presented as means \pm 95% confidence
842 intervals (CI); Unpaired t-tests (C, D, H, K-N) and Mann Whitney test (G); n = 4; * p < 0.05; ** p <
843 0.01. Scale bars: 100 μ m (A) and 50 μ m (A', E' and I'). ctx: cortex; LGE: lateral ganglionic eminence.
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Figure 3

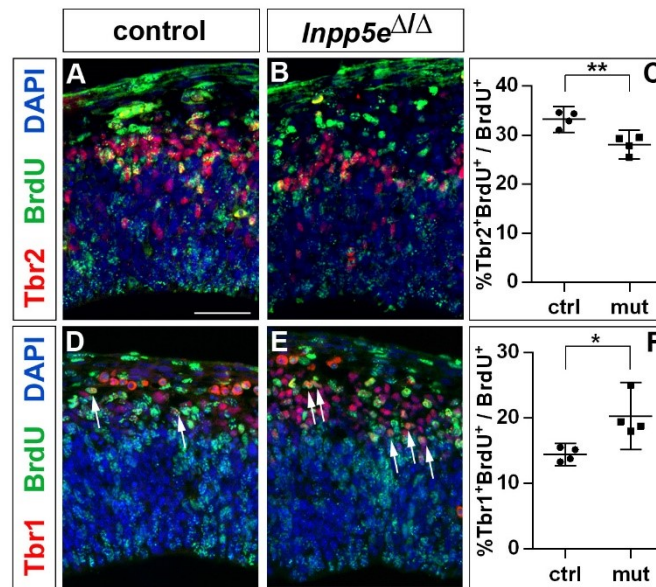
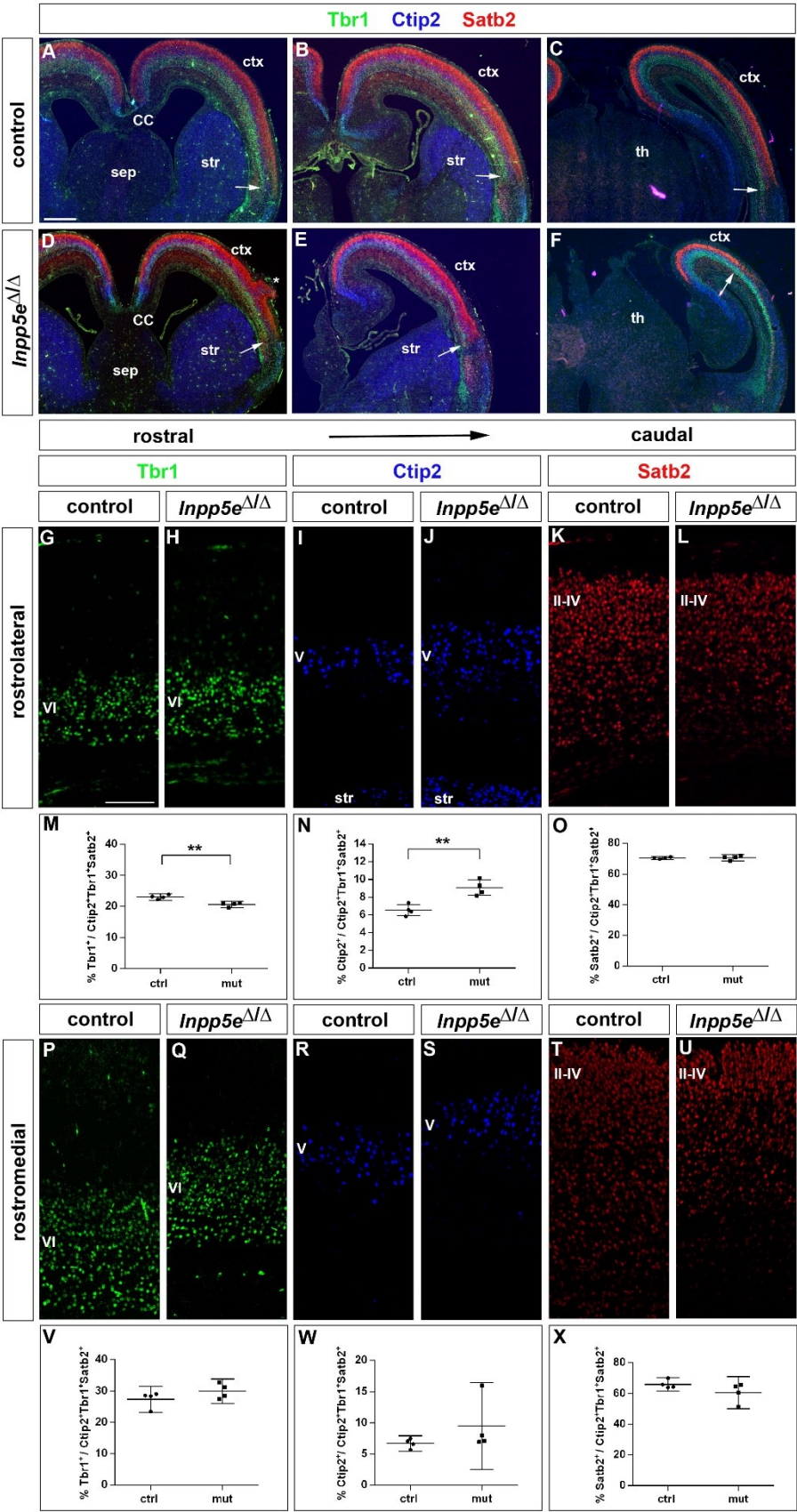


Figure 3: Increased neurogenesis at the expense of basal progenitor formation in the E12.5 *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} mutant lateral telencephalon. Immunohistochemistry on sections of E12.5 control (A, D) and *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos (B, E) that were treated with BrdU 24 hours earlier. (A-C) Tbr2/BrdU double labelling showed that less basal progenitors formed from the BrdU labelled progenitor cohort in *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos. (D-F) The proportion of newly formed Tbr1⁺ neurons was increased in *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos. The arrows in D and E label Tbr1⁺BrdU⁺ cells. All statistical data are presented as means ± 95% confidence intervals (CI); unpaired t tests; n = 4; * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01. Scale bar: 50μm.

Figure 4

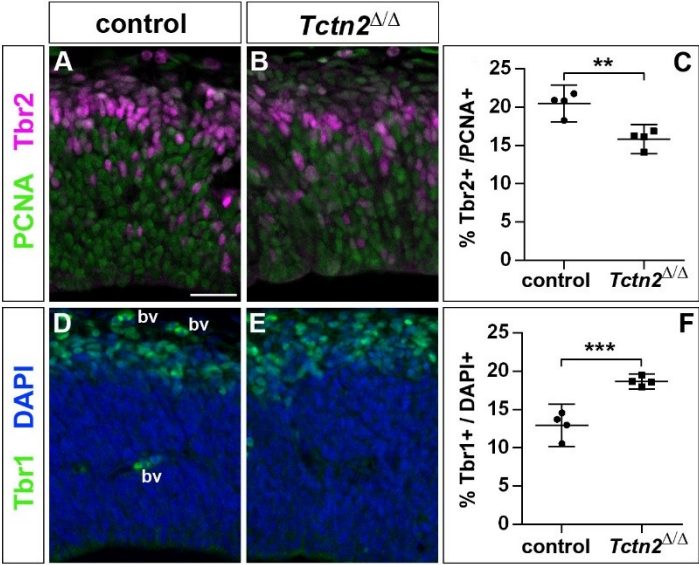


855 **Figure 4: Increased formation of layer V neurons in E18.5 *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} mutants.** (A-F) Coronal
856 sections immunostained for the deep layer markers Tbr1 (layer VI) and Ctip2 (layer V) and for the
857 upper layer marker Satb2 (layers II-IV); there is no obvious defect in layering in *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos
858 except for the formation of a heterotopia (asterisk in D). At caudal levels, the cortex becomes thinner
859 and the rhinal fissure is shifted medially as indicated by the arrows. (G-O) Formation of cortical
860 neurons at rostrolateral levels. The proportion of Tbr1+layer VI neurons is decreased with a
861 concomitant increase in Ctip2+layer V neurons. (P-X) Portion of cortical neurons at rostromedial
862 levels. Immunolabeling with cortical layer markers revealed no significant difference. Note that due
863 to the thinner cortex, the position of layer VI Tbr1+ (Q) and layer V Ctip2+ neurons (J, S) appears to
864 be shifted to more superficial positions, however, the relative order of these layers remains
865 unaffected. All statistical data are presented as means ± 95% confidence intervals (CI); unpaired t-
866 tests (M-O, X); Mann Whitney tests (V, W); n = 4; ** p < 0.01. Scale bars: 500μm (A) and 100μm
867 (G). CC: corpus callosum; ctx: cortex; sep: septum; str: striatum.

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Figure 5



870
871 **Figure 5: Increased generation of cortical neurons in the lateral neocortex of E12.5 *Tctn2*^{Δ/Δ}**
872 **embryos.** (A-C) Double immunofluorescence for PCNA and Tbr2 revealed a significantly decreased
873 proportion of basal progenitors. (D-F) The portion of Tbr1⁺ cortical neurons was increased. All
874 statistical data are presented as means ± 95% confidence intervals (CI); unpaired t tests; n = 4; ** p
875 < 0.01; *** p < 0.001. Scale bar: 50μm. bv: blood vessel.
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Figure 6

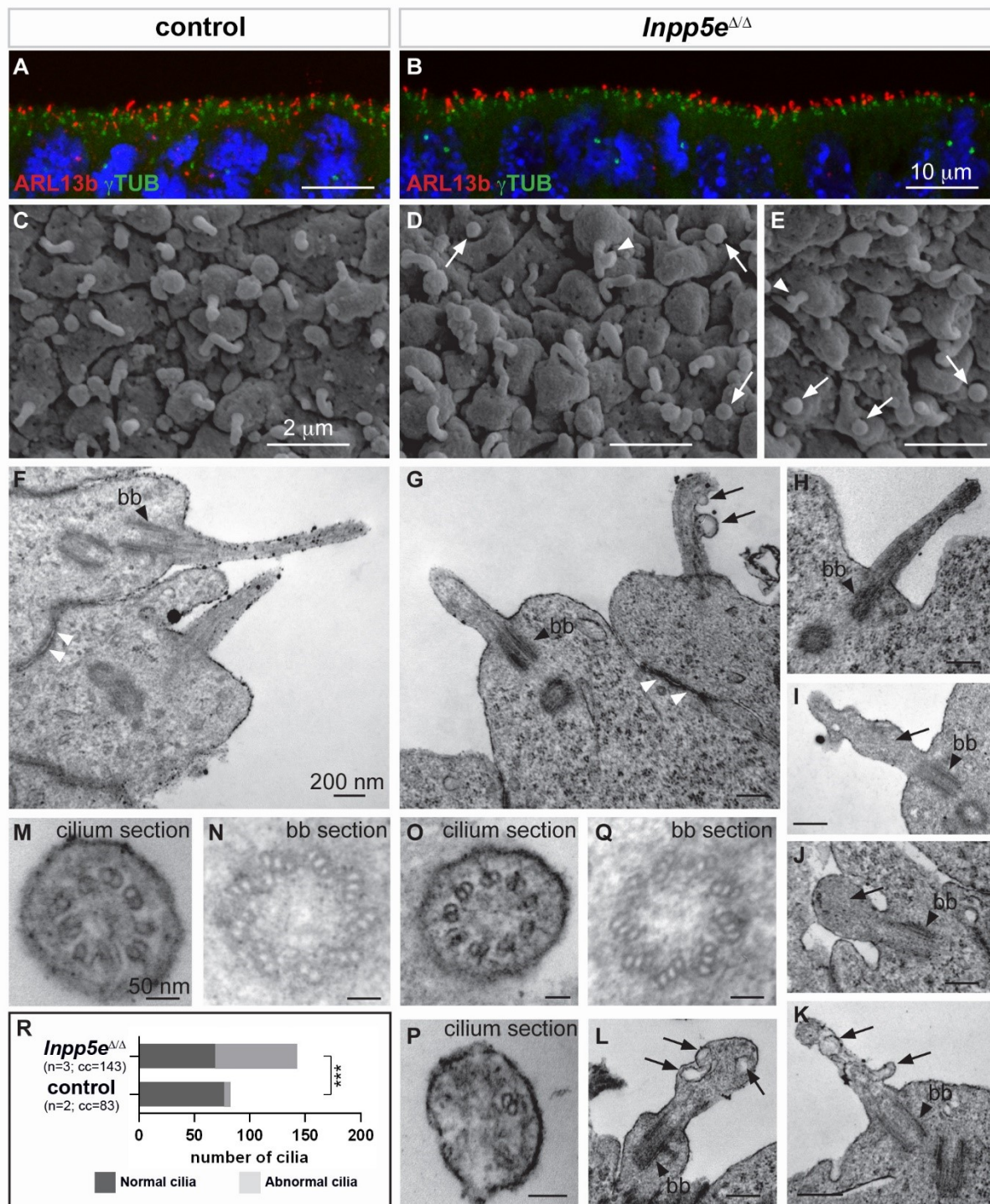


Figure 6: Ciliary defects in E12.5 *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} forebrain. (A-B) Immunohistochemistry for ARL13b and γ -Tubulin (γ TUB) on E12.5 brain cryosections showed an accumulation of ciliary axonemes and basal bodies, respectively, at the apical border of radial glial cells facing the ventricles in both control (A) and *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} (B) embryos without any gross difference. Scale bars: 10 μ m.

882 (C-E) Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) on E12.5 control (C) and *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} (D, E) brains
 883 highlighted the presence of primary cilia projecting from the apical surface of radial glial cells in both
 884 control (A) and *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} (B) embryos. However, SEM also revealed the presence of abnormal cilia
 885 in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos having a spherical shape (arrows in D and E) or aberrant lateral buddings
 886 (arrowheads in D and E). Scale bars: 2 μm. (F-L) Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analysis
 887 on E12.5 brains showed longitudinal sections of primary cilia in control (F) and *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} (G-L)
 888 embryos. In control primary cilia, the axoneme appeared as an extension of the basal body (bb,
 889 black arrowheads) (F-H). In addition to cilia with normal morphology, abnormal cilia were identified
 890 in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos thanks to the presence of a basal body apparently correctly docked to the
 891 apical membrane. Abnormal cilia lacked an axoneme (I, J, L) or showed unusual membranous
 892 structures, such as budding (G, K) or internal (I, K, L) vesicles (arrows) or undulating peripheral
 893 membranes (I). Note that tight junctions (white arrowheads in F and G) appeared normal in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ}
 894 (G) and control (F) embryos, suggesting that apico-basal polarity of *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} radial glial cells was
 895 not compromised. Scale bars: 200 nm. (M-Q) TEM images showing transverse sections of the
 896 axoneme (M, O, P) and the basal body (N, Q) in control (M, N) and *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} (O-Q) embryos with no
 897 major difference in the basal bodies between control (N) and *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} (Q) embryos. However,
 898 transverse section of primary cilia in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} brains revealed the presence of normal axonemes
 899 composed of 9 correctly organized doublets of microtubules on some radial glial cells (O), while
 900 others harboured an abnormal axoneme containing a lower number of microtubule doublets (P).
 901 Scale bars: 50 nm. (R) Graph showing the number of normal versus abnormal cilia (cil.) found on
 902 TEM images from control (n=3) or *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} (n=3) embryos. cc: counted cilia.
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Figure 7

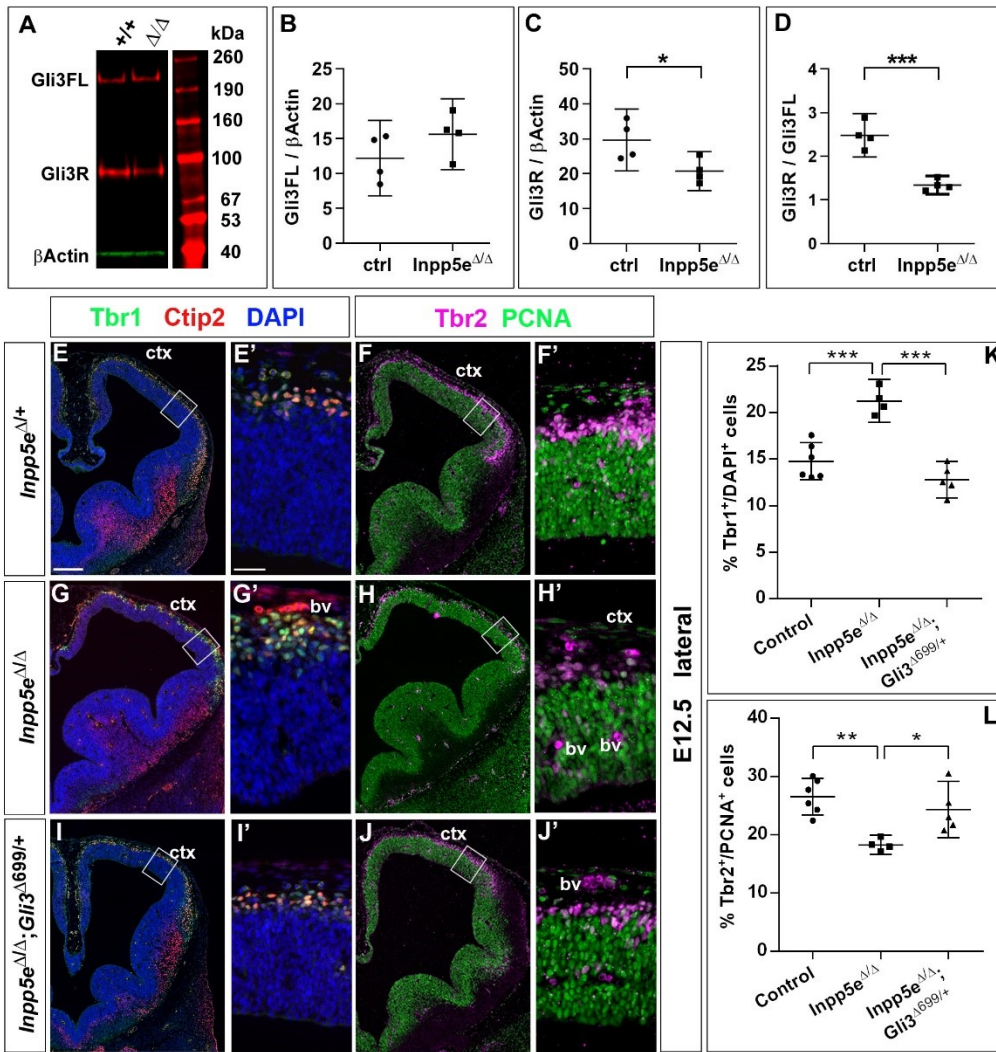


Figure 7: Re-introducing a single copy of the Gli3 repressor rescues the neurogenesis defect in E12.5 *Inpp5e* mutants. (A-D). Gli3 Western blot on E12.5 dorsal telencephalic tissue revealed the Gli3 full length (FL) and repressor (R) forms (A). While Gli3FL levels are not affected (B), levels of Gli3R (C) and the Gli3R/Gli3FL ratio (D) are decreased in *Inpp5e* $^{\Delta/\Delta}$ embryos. An unpaired t-test was used to evaluate levels of Gli3FL and Gli3R and the Gli3R/Gli3FL ratio in four control and four *Inpp5e* $^{\Delta/\Delta}$ embryos derived from four different litters. (E-L) Formation of basal progenitors and neurons in the neocortex of *Inpp5e* $^{\Delta/\Delta}$ and *Inpp5e* $^{\Delta/\Delta}$; *Gli3* $^{\Delta699/+}$ embryos. In the lateral neocortex of E12.5 embryos, there is no significant difference in the proportions of Tbr1 $^{+}$ neurons (E, G, I, K) and basal progenitor cells (F, H, J, L) between control and *Inpp5e* $^{\Delta/\Delta}$; *Gli3* $^{\Delta699/+}$ embryos. Note the three bulges of the ventral telencephalon in *Inpp5e* $^{\Delta/\Delta}$; *Gli3* $^{\Delta699/+}$ embryos (J). Boxes indicate the regions where cell counts were performed. All statistical data are presented as means \pm 95% confidence intervals (CI); unpaired t-tests ($n=5$) (B-D) and one way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test (K, L); * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. Scale bars: 250 μ m (E), and 50 μ m (E'). bv: blood vessel; ctx: cortex.

Figure 8

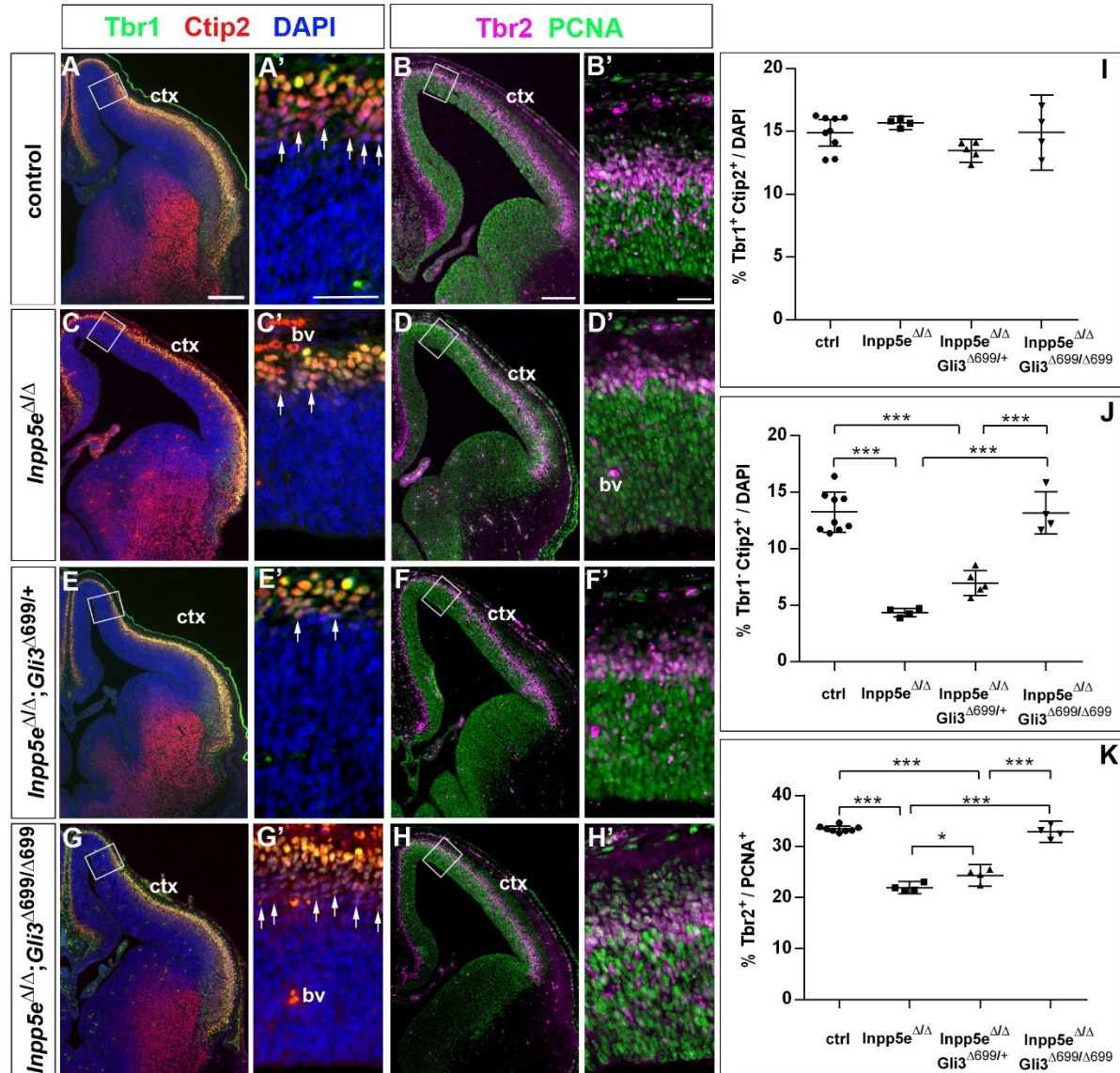


Figure 8: Two copies of the *Gli3* repressor allele are required to rescue the neurogenesis defects in E14.5 *Inpp5e* mutants. (A-H) Proportions of neurons (A, C, E, G) and basal progenitors (B, D, F, H) in the medial neocortex of control, *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ}, *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ}; *Gli3*^{Δ699/+} and *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ}; *Gli3*^{Δ699/Δ699} embryos. (A, C, E, G, J) The formation of Tbr1-Ctip2⁺ projection neurons is rescued after re-introducing two copies of the *Gli3* repressor allele. (B, D, F, H, K) The proportion of basal progenitors is slightly increased in *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ}; *Gli3*^{Δ699/+} embryos but a full rescue is only achieved in *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ}; *Gli3*^{Δ699/Δ699} embryos. Boxes indicate the regions where cell counts were performed. All statistical data are presented as means ± 95% confidence intervals (CI); one way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test (I, J, K); * p < 0.05; *** p < 0.001. Scale bars: 250μm (A, B), 50μm (A', B'). bv: blood vessel; ctx: cortex.

Figure 9

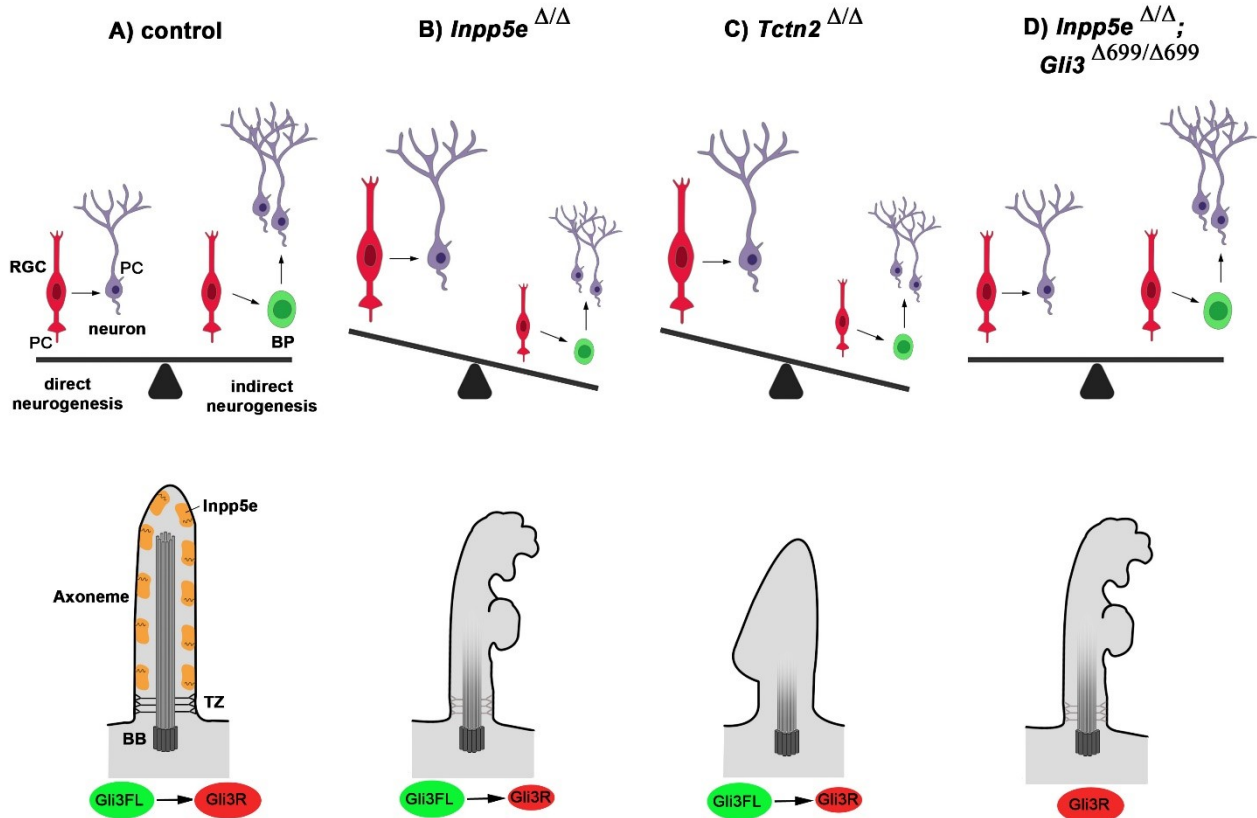
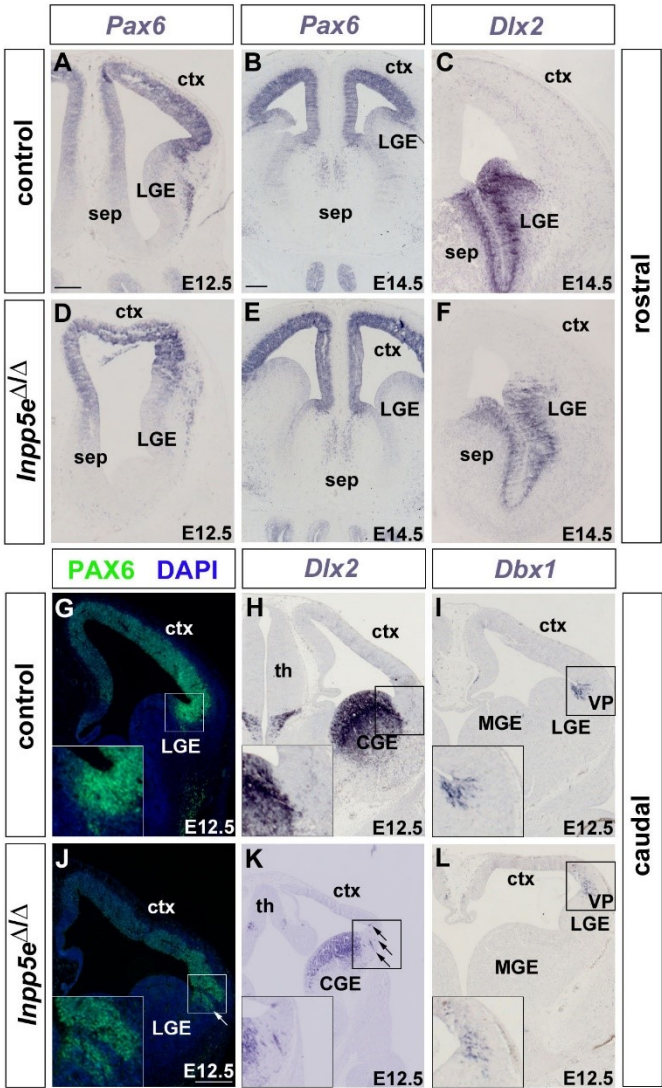


Figure 9: Model for *Inpp5e*'s role in controlling direct vs indirect neurogenesis in the developing cortex. (A) A fine-tuned balance between direct and indirect neurogenesis is required to produce cortical neurons in appropriate numbers. The structure of a primary cilium and the ciliary localisation of the *Inpp5e* protein are schematically indicated. (B) The *Inpp5e* mutation affects the axoneme (shaded microtubules) and ciliary morphology and may compromise the transition zone as indicated by the grayish colour (Dyson et al., 2017). Gli3R levels are reduced and there is a shift towards direct neurogenesis. (C) *Tctn2*^{Δ/Δ} embryos have morphologically abnormal cilia, a defective axoneme and transition zone (Garcia-Gonzalo et al., 2011), lack ciliary *Inpp5e* protein (Garcia-Gonzalo et al., 2015) and phenocopy the neurogenesis defect of *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} mutants. (D) Introducing Gli3R in an *Inpp5e* mutant background restores Gli3 levels and the balance between direct and indirect neurogenesis. BB: basal body; BP: basal progenitor; PC: primary cilium; RGC: radial glial cell; TZ: transition zone.

Figure 1 - figure supplement 1



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947 **Figure 1-figure supplement 1: Formation of the telencephalic boundaries in *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ}**
 948 **embryos.** (A-F) Formation of the corticoseptal boundary. Expression of the dorsal marker gene *Pax6*
 949 (A, B, D, E) and of the ventral marker gene *Dlx2* (C, F) remain restricted to the cortex and septum,
 950 respectively, with a sharp expression boundary between both tissues. (G-L) Formation of the
 951 pallial/subpallial boundary. While there is a sharp expression boundary between cortex and lateral
 952 ganglionic eminence (LGE) in wild-type embryos (G-I), scattered *Pax6* and *Dlx2* expressing cells
 953 (arrows in J and K) are found in the mutant LGE and cortex, respectively, while the *Dbx1* expression
 954 domain characteristic of the ventral pallium (VP) is fuzzier (L). CGE: caudal ganglionic eminence;
 955 ctx: cortex; MGE: medial ganglionic eminence; sep: septum; th: thalamus. Scale bars: 200 μm.

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Figure 1 - figure supplement 2

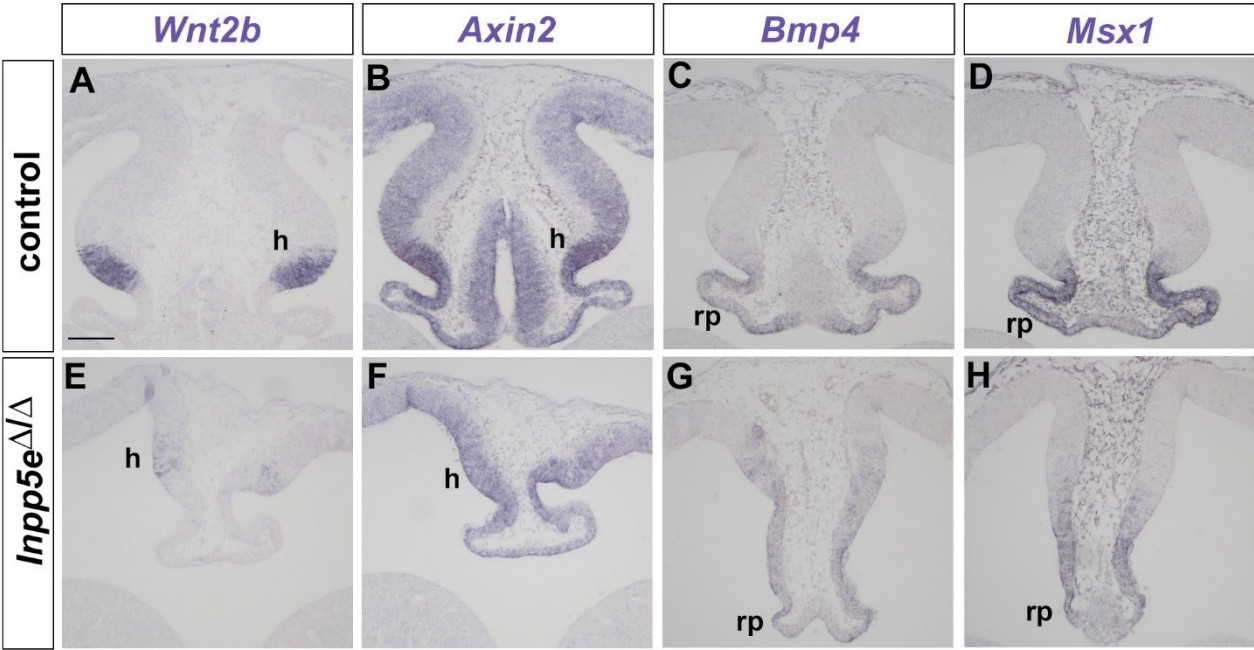


Figure 1-figure supplement 2: Wnt/ β -catenin and Bmp signalling in the dorsomedial telencephalon of E12.5 *Inpp5e^{ΔΔ}* embryos. (A, B, E, F) Reduced Wnt/ β -catenin signalling in *Inpp5e^{ΔΔ}* embryos. (A, E) *Wnt2b* expression is confined to the cortical hem (h) while there are only few scattered *Wnt2b* expressing cells in the mutant. (B, F) Graded expression of the Wnt target gene *Axin2* in the dorsal midline is reduced in mutant embryos. (C, D, G, H) Roof plate (rp) expression of *Bmp4* and its target gene *Msx1* are reduced in *Inpp5e^{ΔΔ}* embryos. Scale bar: 100 μ m.

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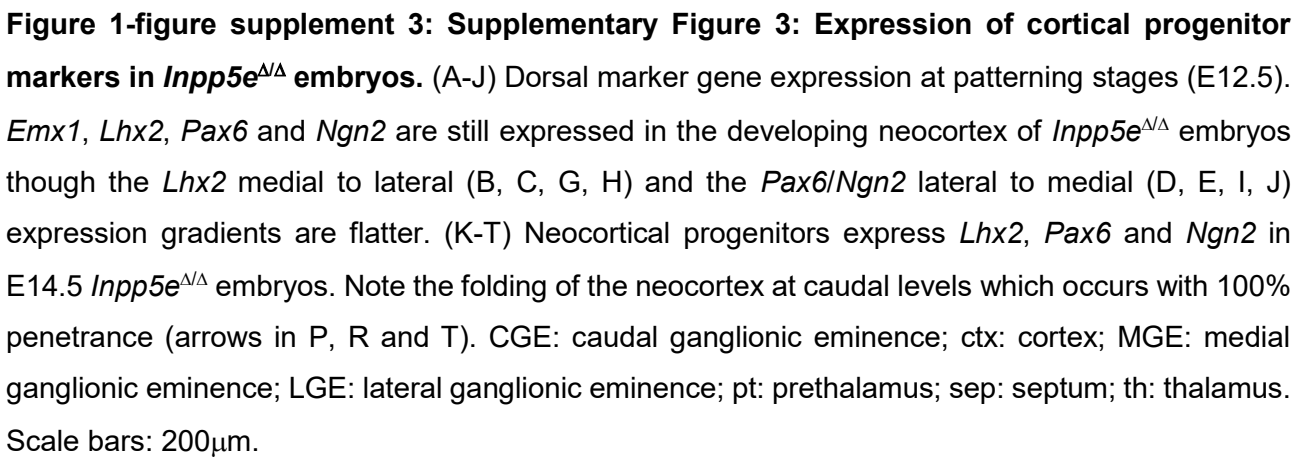


Figure 3 - figure supplement 1

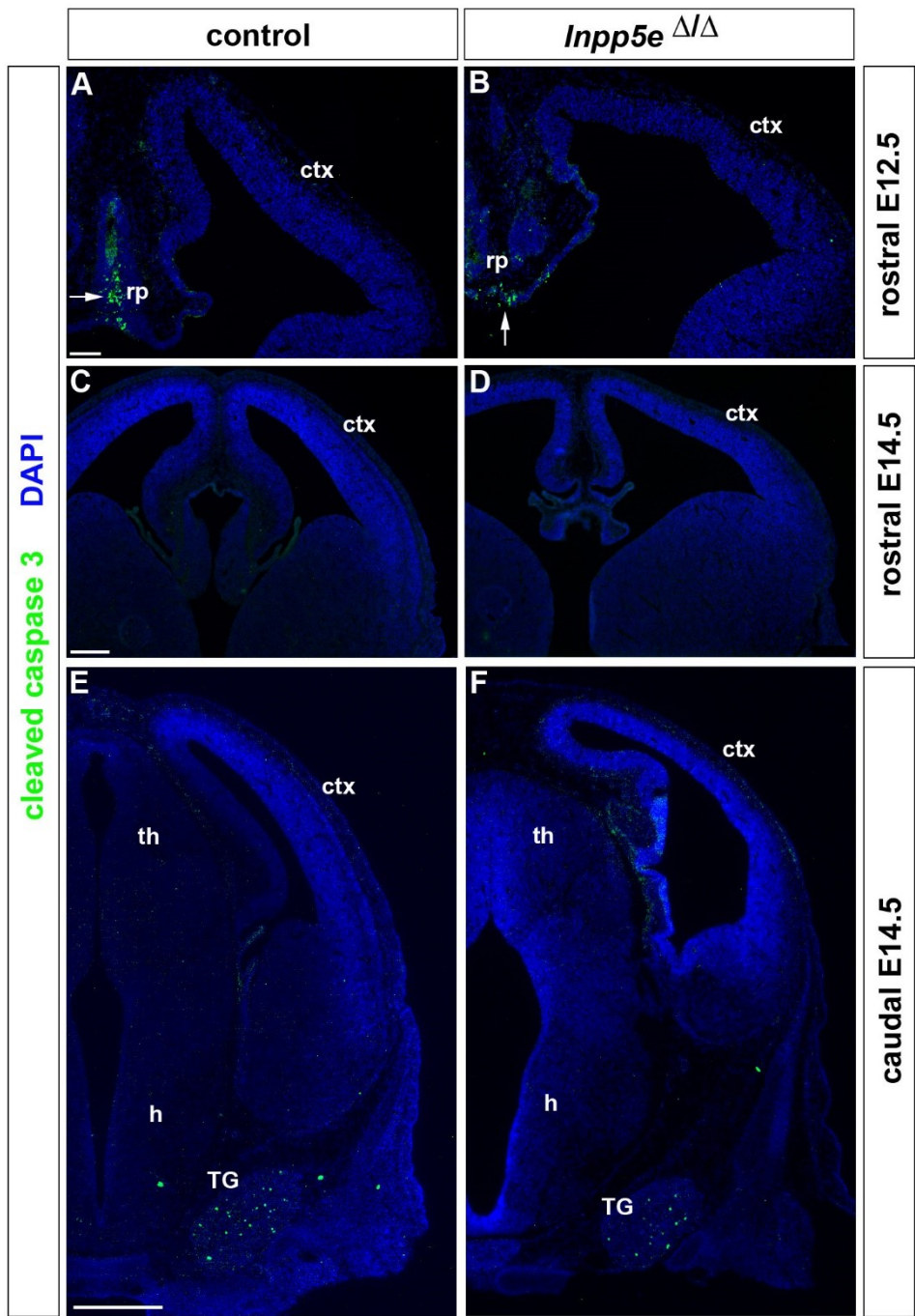


Figure 3-figure supplement 1: Apoptosis in the developing forebrain of *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos. (A-F) Immunofluorescence staining for Cleaved Caspase 3 revealing apoptotic cells. (A, B) Programmed cell death was detected in the midline roof plate (rp) but hardly in the developing neocortex of E12.5 control (A) and *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos (B). (C-F) In E14.5 embryos, very few apoptotic cells were identified in the neocortex while apoptosis is widespread in the trigeminal ganglion (TG) (E, F). ctx: cortex. Scale bars: (A): 100μm, (C): 250μm, (D) 500μm.

Figure 3 - figure supplement 2

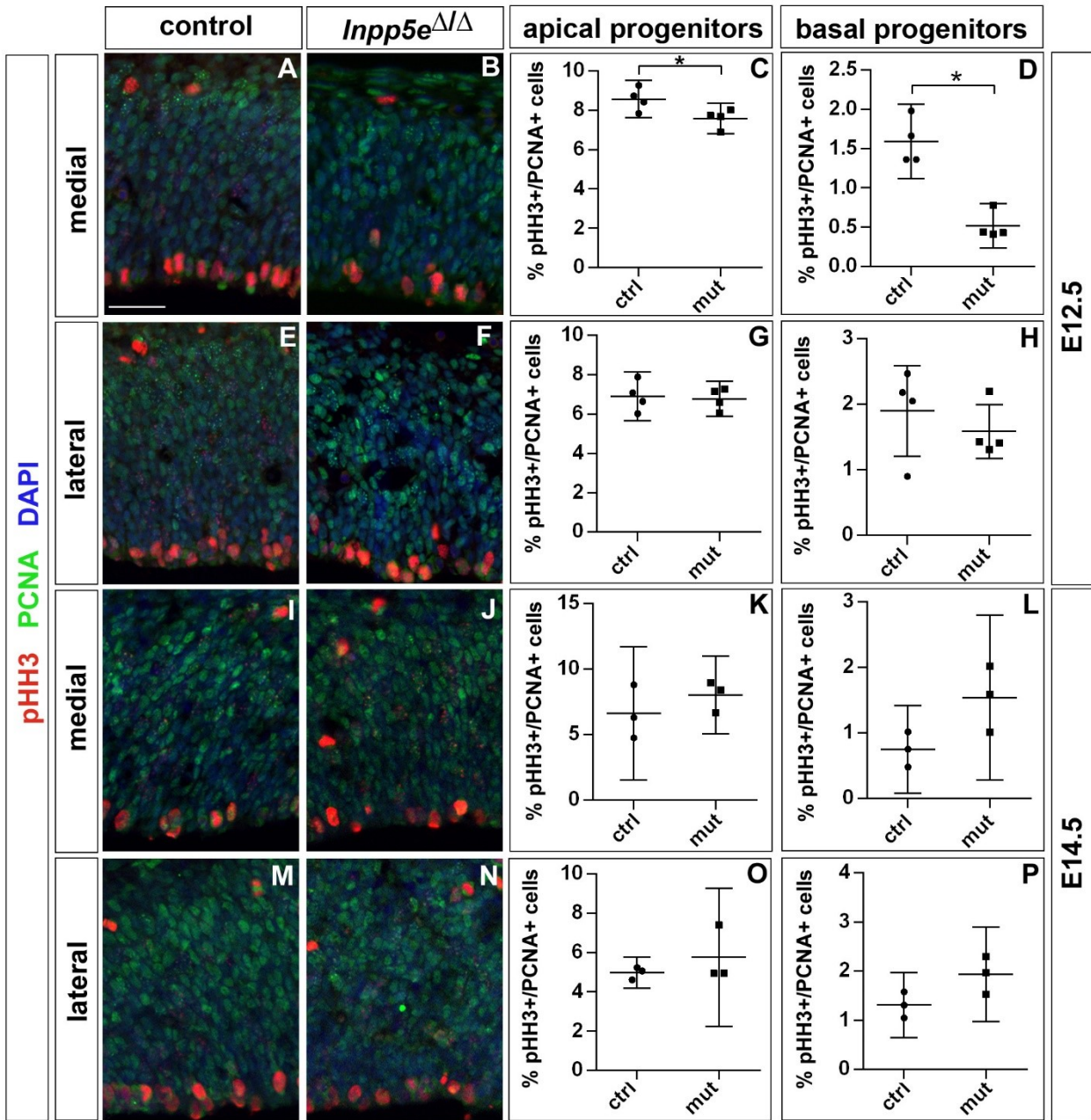


Figure 3-figure supplement 2: Proportion of mitotic progenitors in *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos. (A-H) Proportions of mitotic progenitors in E12.5 control (A, E) and *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos (B, F) as revealed by pHH3 (mitotic cells) and PCNA (all progenitor cells) double immunofluorescence. Note the reduction in mitotic basal progenitors in the *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} medial neocortex (A, B, D). (I-P) The proportions of apical and basal progenitors is not significantly different in E14.5 control and *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos. In all panels, radial glia cells divide at the ventricular surface whereas mitotic basal progenitors locate in abventricular positions. All statistical data are presented as means ± 95% confidence intervals (CI); unpaired t-tests (C, G, K, L, P) and Mann Whitney tests (D, H, O); n = 4; * p < 0.05. Scale bar: 50μm.

Figure 3 - figure supplement 3

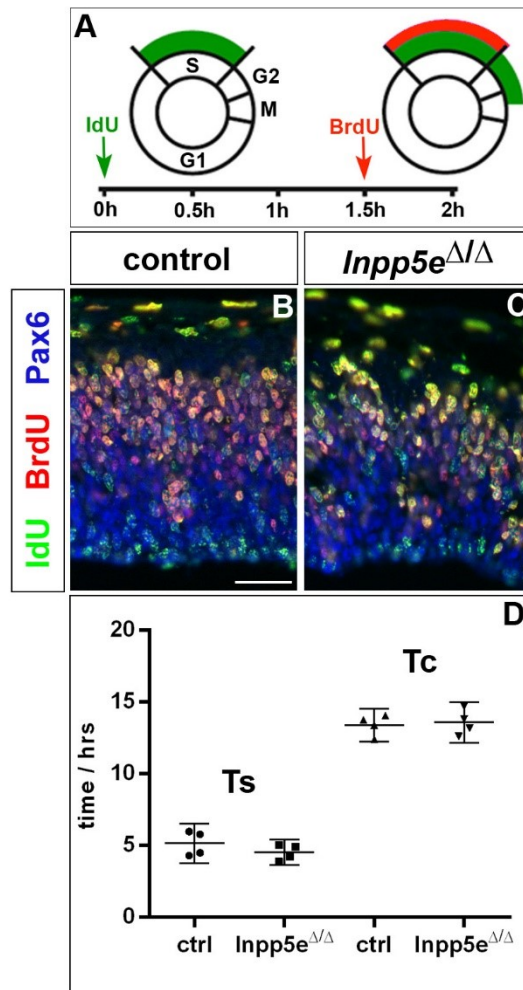


Figure 3-figure supplement 3: Cell cycle of cortical progenitors in E12.5 *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos. (A) Schematic illustrating the BrdU/IdU double labelling strategy to measure S phase (T_s) and total cell cycle length (T_c). 90 minutes after an initial IdU administration, pregnant females received an intraperitoneal BrdU injection. Embryos are harvested 30 minutes later. (B, C) Double immunofluorescence to detect IdU+ and BrdU+ progenitors. (D) Quantification showing no significant change in T_s and T_c . Statistical data are presented as means \pm 95% confidence intervals (CI); unpaired t-tests; n = 4; * p < 0.05. Scale bar: 50μm.

Figure 4 - figure supplement 1

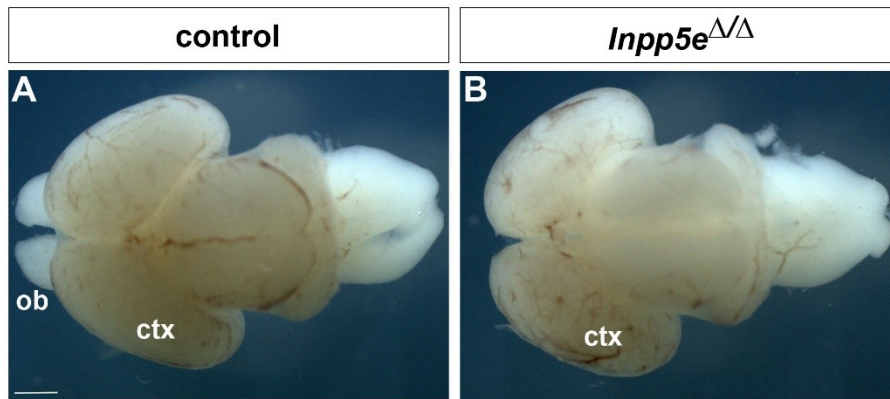
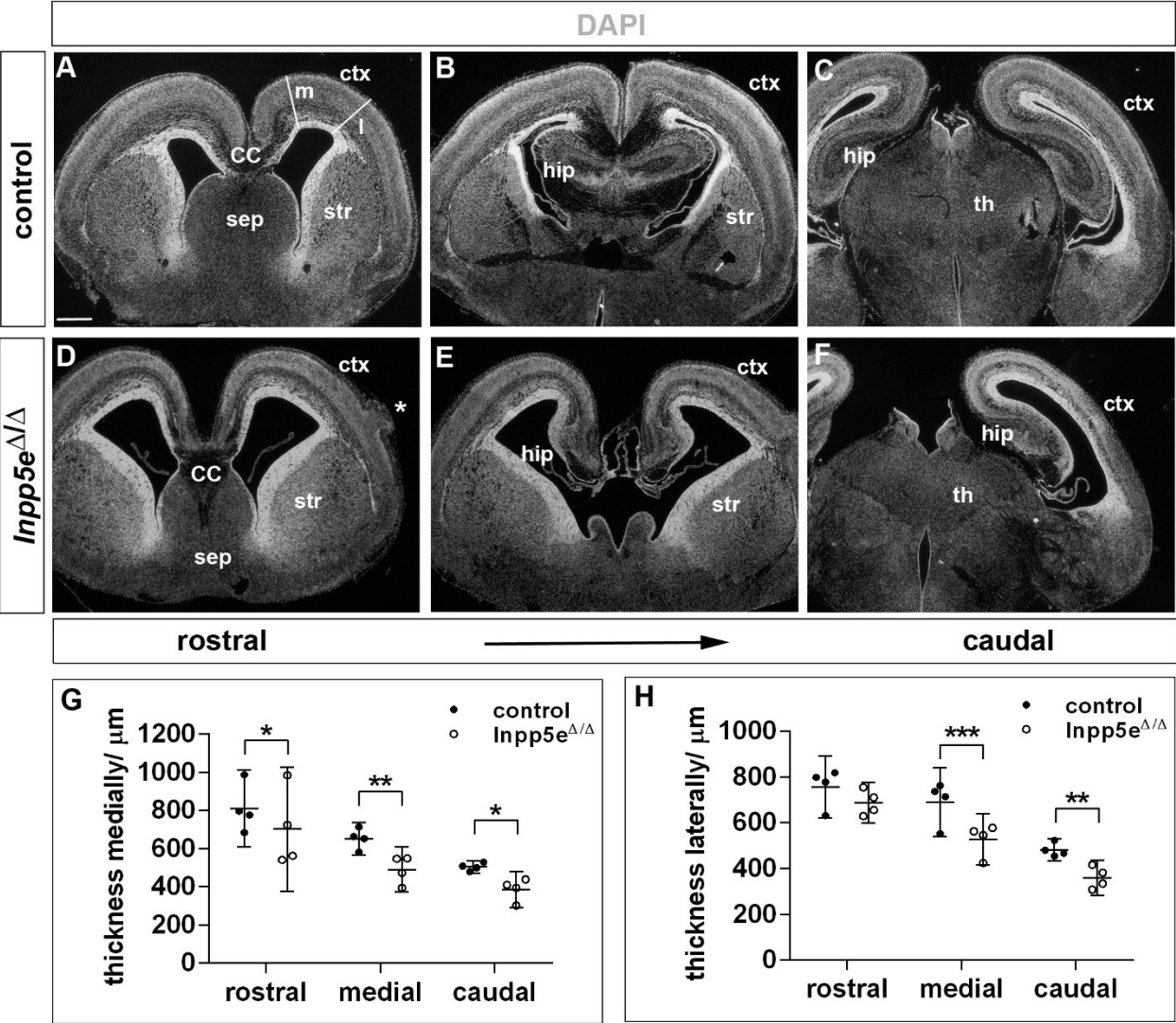


Figure 4-figure supplement 1: Whole mount preparations of E18.5 brains. (A) Control. (B) *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} brain. Note the absence of obvious protrusions of the olfactory bulbs (ob) in the mutant. Ctx: cortex. Scale bar: 1 mm.

Figure 4 - figure supplement 2



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Figure 4-figure supplement 2: Forebrain malformations in E18.5 *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} embryos. (A-F) Coronal sections through the forebrain of E18.5 control (A-C) and *Inpp5e*^{Δ/Δ} (D-F) embryos. The asterisk in (D) demarcates a heterotopia in the *Inpp5e* mutant. Note that the mutant lateral neocortex is thinner at most levels but not rostrolaterally (D- F). The lines in (A) indicate where cortical thickness was measured at medial (m) and lateral (l) levels. (G, H) Quantification of cortical thickness. CC: corpus callosum; ctx: cortex; hip: hippocampus; sep: septum; str: striatum; th: thalamus. Scale bar: 500μm. Statistical data are presented as means ± 95% confidence intervals (CI); Two way ANOVA followed by Sidak multiple comparisons test; n = 4; * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.005; *** p < 0.001.

Figure 4 - figure supplement 3

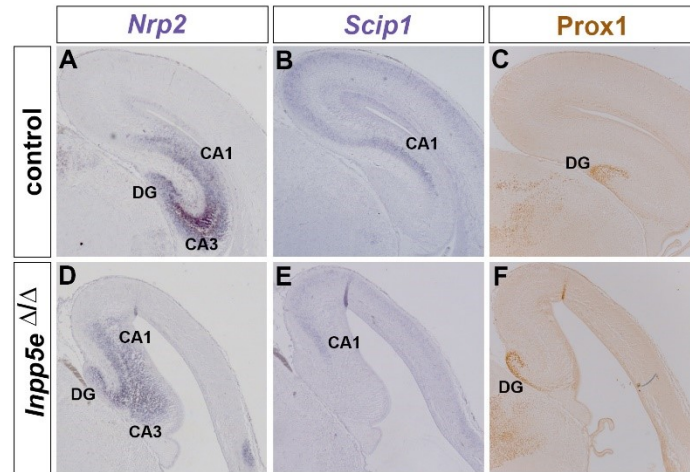


Figure 4-figure supplement 3: Hippocampus formation in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos. (A-F) Hippocampal marker gene expression in E18.5 control (A-C) and *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos (D-F). Expression of *Nrp2* labels the whole hippocampal formation (A), while *Scip1* is expressed in CA1 and in the neocortex (B). *Prox1* expression is confined to the dentate gyrus (DG) (C). In *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos, these hippocampal markers are expressed but their expression domains are severely reduced or disorganized (D-F).

Figure 4 - figure supplement 4

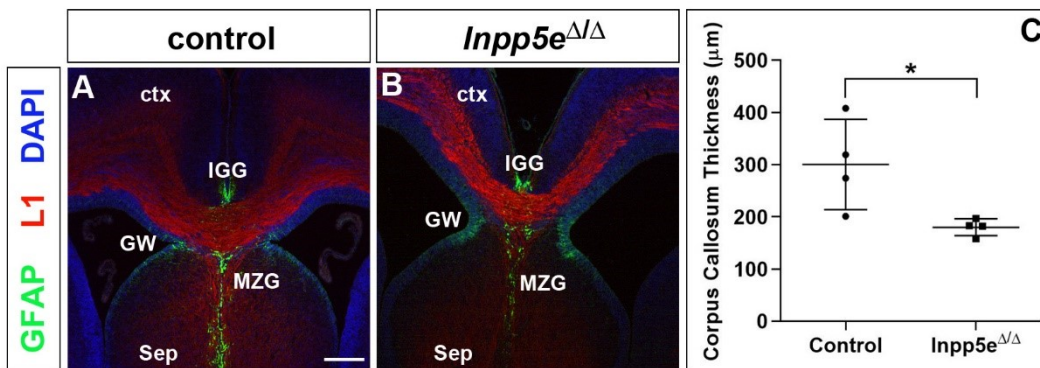


Figure 4-figure supplement 4: Formation of the corpus callosum in E18.5 *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos. (A, B) Coronal section through the telencephalon stained with L1 and GFAP to reveal the corpus callosum (CC) and glial cells, respectively. The corpus callosum was smaller in *Inpp5e*^{ΔΔ} embryos while the glial wedge (GW), the induseum griseum glia (IGG) and the midline zipper glia (MZG) occupied their correct position surrounding the corpus callosum. (C) Quantification of corpus callosum thickness. Statistical data are presented as means ± 95% confidence intervals (CI); Mann-Whitney test; n = 4; * p < 0.05. Scale bar: 250μm.

Figure 7 - figure supplement 1

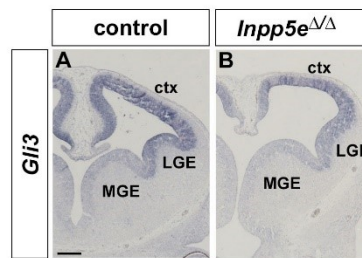


Figure 7-figure supplement 1: *Gli3* mRNA expression in *Inpp5e* mutants. (A, B) *Gli3* in situ hybridization showing *Gli3* mRNA expression in the cortex (ctx) and lateral ganglionic eminence (LGE) of control (A) and *Inpp5e* Δ/Δ embryos (B).

Figure 7 - figure supplement 2

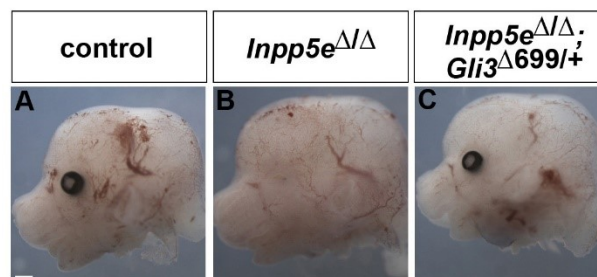


Figure 7-figure supplement 2: Rescue of eye development in *Inpp5e* Δ/Δ ; *Gli3* $\Delta699/+$ embryos. (A-C) Side views of the heads of E12.5 embryos with the indicated genotype. *Inpp5e* Δ/Δ embryos lack the eye completely or only form a small remnant whereas eye formation is not affected in *Inpp5e* Δ/Δ ; *Gli3* $\Delta699/+$ embryos. Scale bar: 1mm

Figure 7 - figure supplement 3

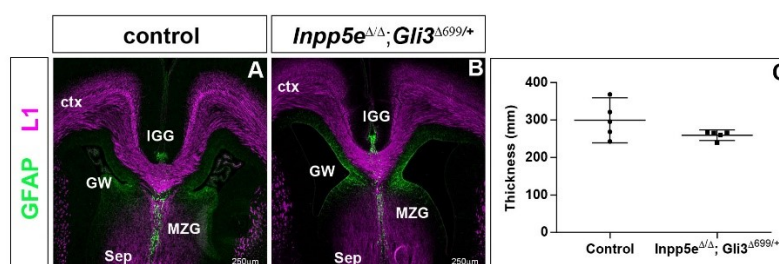


Figure 7-figure supplement 3: Rescue of corpus callosum formation in *Inpp5e* Δ/Δ ; *Gli3* $\Delta699/+$ embryos. (A-B) Coronal section through the telencephalon stained with L1 and GFAP to reveal the corpus callosum (CC) and glial cells, respectively. There is no significant difference in the size of the corpus callosum between control and *Inpp5e* Δ/Δ ; *Gli3* $\Delta699/+$ embryos; the glial wedge (GW), the induseum griseum glia (IGG) and the midline zipper glia (MZG) are formed in their correct position. (C) Quantification of corpus callosum thickness. Statistical data are presented as means \pm 95% confidence intervals (CI); Mann Whitney tests; n = 4; Scale bar: 250 μ m.